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NORTH DAKOTA EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

REPORT

OF THE

COMMITTEE OF SEVEN

ON

Adjustment of Educational Work in North Dakota with Reference to the Needs of the Times

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

DECEMBER, 1909

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

Report of the Committee of Seven

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

To the North Dakota Educational Association:

The undersigned Committee has the honor to submit the following report on the Adjustment of Elementary School Work to the needs of the children of North Dakota:

The Committee:
- C. C. SCHMIDT, *Chairman,*
- W. M. KERN,
- D. E. WILLARD,
- T. A. HILLYER,
- W. A. GODWARD,
- B. A. WALLACE,
- P. G. KNOWLTON.

HISTORICAL STATEMENT.

At a joint session of the Departments of Secondary and of Higher and Professional Education of the N. D. E. A. held in Grand Forks, Jan. 3rd, 1908, a motion was carried to appoint a committee of seven "to formulate a plan of adjustment of educational work in this state, and make a report of progress at the next meeting of the N. D. E. A. and make a final report as soon as possible." The Committee appointed consisted of Prof. C. C. Schmidt, State University, Chairman; State Supt. W. L. Stockwell, Bismarck; Prof. D. E. Willard, Agricultural College; Pres. Thos. A. Hillyer, State Normal School, Mayville; Supt. W. A. Godward, Devils Lake; Prof. P. G. Knowlton, Fargo College; County Supt. B. A. Wallace, Hillsboro.

In accordance with its instructions this committee made a preliminary report in October, 1908, and the questions it raised were made the basis of part of the discussions of the holiday meeting of the State Association at Valley City. The Committee wishes to express its appreciation of these excellent discussions, and its indebtedness for many suggestions thus received for this year's work.

One of the resolutions adopted at this meeting made the Committee of Seven a committee of the State Association, and instructed it to emphasize for the coming year the problem of the elementary schools, with a view to definite recommendations in this line at least, at the next association. Before the beginning of the work on this topic, however, the Committee received a letter from State Superintendent Stockwell stating that the pressure of other duties would prevent his devoting the time to the Committee's work that he would wish to if a member, and offering his resignation. Accordingly, the Committee accepted his resignation, and asked Pres. Wm. M. Kern of the Normal-Industrial School to take the place thus made vacant. This Pres. Kern consented to do.

The Committee has had five meetings of a full day each; numerous letters have been interchanged between the individual members, and each has devoted many hours to the formulation of the particular part assigned to him. But we realize the incompleteness of our work and the many important things yet to be done. We should especially have liked to include some thoughts on the vexed problem of the monthly examinations, the equipment of the school, and the school as a social center and a factor in rural improvement. We hope, however, that this contribution may be of some slight service in advancing the cause of education in North Dakota.

AUTHORSHIP.

The various parts of the report have been discussed in committee so that they express its views in regard to their chief propositions and recommendations. The organization, the details, and the wording are of course the work of individual writers. Thinking that possibly some readers would be interested in knowing who these authors are, we give the names below:

Introduction to Educational Aims—*Prof. Schmidt.*
Physical Education—*Pres. Kern.*
Vocational Education—*Prof. Schmidt.*
Culture and Discipline—*Supt. Godward.*
Civic and Moral Education—*Pres. Hillyer.*
Religion in the Elementary School—*Prof. Knowlton.*
Introduction to Course of Study Recommendations—*Supt. Wallace.*
The Course in Arithmetic—*Prof. Schmidt.*
The Course in Reading—*Prof. Knowlton.*

The Course in Language—*Supt. Wallace.*

The Course in History—*Pres. Hillyer.*

Social Studies other than History—Contributed by *Prof. Gillette.*

The Course in Geography, Nature Study and Agriculture—*Supt. Godward.*

Manual Training and Domestic Science in the Elementary School—*Pres. Kern.*

Preparation of Teachers—*Pres. Hillyer.*

Improvement of Teachers already in the Service—*Pres. Kern.*

Supervision—*Supt. Wallace.*

I. EDUCATIONAL AIMS

INTRODUCTION.

It seems that no discussion of educational adjustment can be carried on without giving consideration to the true and proper end of education, and thus our Committee, although it took for its task the course of study for elementary schools, felt obliged to give much attention to educational theory. Ordinarily courses of study and educational practices are copied from others who in turn have borrowed them from some one else. But in such a task as the present one tradition or custom cannot be taken as a guide. The Committee has considered what should be the aims of education, and then has tried to determine the content and form of the curriculum by means of which those ends might be reached.

The Committee holds the belief that most of the aims of education that have been exploited by the older educational theorists are ultra-individualistic and take too little account of the needs, interests, and obligations of man as a member of society. The Committee believes that the more recent phrase, "the development of the socially efficient individual" is the most satisfactory statement of the dominant aim of education, and to realize that aim man's physical, vocational, cultural, civic and moral, and religious interests are sufficiently important to demand distinct recognition. These terms are here used in the popular sense and are not meant to be mutually exclusive. The articles which follow briefly discuss the nature, relative value, importance and bearing of each of these great factors in the aim of education. These articles were written by the members named elsewhere and were then discussed and revised so as to express the views of the whole committee. By way of introduction we desire here to call attention to a few of their salient points.

The Physical Well-being. Here the greatest need is to remove the emphasis from theory and place it upon practice. The state laws have rigidly required instruction in physiology and hygiene for many years, and teachers have been compelled to explain the principles of lighting, heating, ventilating, and cleanliness, while the pupils listen-

ing to this instruction are housed in buildings that violate every one of these same principles. The precepts of the teachers are thus pretty effectually nullified by the example of the school authorities; and, besides, the pupil suffers the result of bad air, poor light, filthy outhouses, etc. Far more good would be accomplished by reversing the situation: providing proper sanitary conditions and omitting the instruction. But, of course, nobody wants to omit the instruction. There is only one sensible course open: improve conditions and bring them into harmony with the principles that we are already required to teach.

The Vocational Aim. The agitation for a more practical education is as wide as the country and has been carried on for several years by all bodies of educators from the National Educational Association down. It should be noticed that some adjustments in harmony with the demands are being made in spots in many parts of the country, and it seems safe to predict that sooner or later some reform in this direction will be accomplished universally. The question with North Dakota educators should no longer be, Shall our schools give more vocational education? but, What type of vocational education is it feasible for us to offer, and how can we overcome the numerous difficulties and problems connected therewith?

The Committee does not share the fear which is sometimes expressed that the movement for a more practical education may go too far. In theory, of course, all our school work might be made a very narrow training in the barest routine or technique of certain vocations and the adoption of such a program this Committee would deplore. But the practical school administrator knows too well that the obstacles to the introduction of even a modest amount of vocational training for elementary and high school pupils are so great as to be almost insurmountable. And first of all there is the well-known conservatism of the educational public which holds the curriculum to traditional lines with such tenacity that it is usually many years behind the actual needs of the times. We cannot conceive how this conservatism would ever allow a general educational reform to go too far. Then there are the practical difficulties to be overcome: securing teachers for these newer lines, and providing the necessary room and equipment. All of this requires much time and money, for it should be recognized that all kinds of vocational or practical education are of necessity more expensive than the ordinary type of school work.

We are not in favor of vocational training solely because it ought to produce greater vocational efficiency, but because we believe it is one of the best means of training the mind. It is one of the best means because the learner here studies the things that are found in his environment, that come within his experience, and by which he expects to live.

Formal Discipline. The Committee believes that mental discipline is of highest importance as a factor in school work, but that

there are several current conceptions regarding the nature of this discipline which present-day educational psychology does not sustain. (See Prof. A. P. Hollis, "The Doctrine of Formal Discipline.") According to one of these conceptions, power which results from exercise upon one kind of mental task is usable in all other kinds of mental effort. We believe that this power is transferable only in so far as the new problem has elements in common with the problem upon which the power was developed. Another notion maintains that certain school subjects have a practical monopoly of the efficacy for discipline, and that other studies are comparatively valueless for that purpose. Some people have even gone so far as to maintain that the disciplinary value of a subject is inversely proportional to its utility value. The Committee believes that each study in the school course, or now proposed for the school course, is capable of yielding a discipline more or less peculiar to itself; that aside from this the inherent disciplinary value of a subject is independent of its utility value; but that many pupils are more liable to pursue the "practical" subjects with the necessary earnestness to afford good discipline than in case of those that appear "useless" to them.

The older notions concerning mental discipline have often been advanced effectively in defending the retention in the curriculum of subjects or topics which for other reasons might have been eliminated. Now, it seems to the Committee that while the power that results from discipline is of utmost value it nevertheless occupies the position of a "by-product," and we therefore recommend that no subject or topic should be placed in the course of study or retained there solely, or even chiefly, on the plea that it is "good for discipline."

Culture. Perhaps no other term in the vocabulary of educational literature is used with such looseness of meaning as the word culture, and we believe that many a false educational policy is pursued under the vague notion that somehow it is necessary for "culture." Let it be noted that culture is a composite made up of all the acquired qualities and attitudes of mind and body, and that the qualities and attitudes desired can only be cultivated or developed by discriminating exercise.

Moreover, men's concept of an ideal culture varies with the particular social group that passes judgment upon it, and our own ideal should not be borrowed from other races and other times; for, as President Eliot says in the New Definition of the Cultivated Man, "The cultivated man of today is, or ought to be, a distinctly different creature from the cultivated man of a century ago." It therefore behooves the thoughtful educator to remember that while his ideal may have an ancient and honorable lineage it may not necessarily be the best that can be bestowed upon the next generation, for, "The educational readjustment of today is reaching out for newer types of culture." (Prof. A. D. Weeks,—"General Culture and Culture

Subjects.") Among the desirable qualities or attitudes that should be cultivated are,—physical health and grace, intellectual interest in all knowledge, love of truth and righteousness, broad sympathy, refinement of the emotional and esthetic nature, industry, morality and religion.

It will be seen that culture includes a good part of what is said under other educational aims in this article. It is probable that even the limits here imposed upon the term are unwarranted by the usage of the best authorities, and that the only scientific definition which is consistent is the one used by Superintendent Godward in his discussion which follows. He makes culture embrace everything that results from cultivation, including knowledge, power and skill,—all the fruits of education. The ideal culture then is the composite of all such qualities, attitudes, tendencies, knowledge, power, skill, etc., as are desirable. Culture in that sense, no one will deny, comprehends the whole end of education.

The Moral and Civic Aim. The work in this category should be broadened so as to embrace a more comprehensive study of man's social relations, with the emphasis laid upon his immediate social environment. There should be more systematic instruction as to the interdependence of all the members of one social group and as between one group and another, and from this relation the genesis of moral and civil laws should be traced. Our instruction in civil government is now too exclusively a study of the machinery of government without any attempt to show the necessity or wisdom of such provisions as we find. In the elementary school period at least, it is more important to cultivate the right attitude toward law by showing its moral basis than that children should commit to memory a great multiplicity of statutory or constitutional provisions for district, city, county, state and nation.

Religion. A reverential attitude toward sacred things should be shown by the teacher and inculcated in the pupil. Literature and science and other subjects in the regular school routine furnish excellent texts for this purpose. But formal instruction in religion in the public schools the Committee thinks would be inconsistent with the spirit of American institutions.

THE PHYSICAL WELL-BEING OF THE CHILD; SANITARY CONDITIONS OF THE SCHOOL; PHYSICAL TRAINING; INSTRUCTION IN HYGIENE.

The high pressure and keen competition of modern life determine the value of bodily endurance. Other things equal, the "good animal" wins. A robust physique is desirable for both boys and girls. *Mens sana in corpore sano* comprehends the sum of all educational wisdom.

I. Under the physical well-being of the child must be included:

(1) Improved methods of heating, lighting and ventilating.

(2) Proper wardrobe facilities.

(3) Adjustable school furniture.

(4) Proper seating with reference to seeing and hearing.

(5) Playgrounds that give opportunity for free and unrestrained exercise. No child can learn well or grow mentally who is in bodily discomfort.

II. *Sanitary conditions of the school:*

(1) Unsanitary school conditions are found in both country and city; chiefly in the country and small towns.

(2) Such conditions may be attributed to poorly constructed buildings; unsuitable furniture which cramps and distorts the growing body; heating systems which result in an atmosphere alternately too hot and too cold; impure and poisonous air due to the lack of ventilation; poor light which impairs sight; dirty floors, walls and desks, due to cheap and inefficient janitor service; impure drinking water and lack of suitable lavatory facilities resulting in the spread of contagion; filthy outhouses which are a source of physical, mental and moral defilement.

III. *Physical Training:*

(a) Because of the sedentary nature of school life three general ill results are likely to follow:

(1) Because of the lack of muscular activity the nutritive processes—digestion, circulation and respiration—are liable to become weakened and deranged.

(2) Owing to the weakened and deranged nutritive processes and owing to long detention in a relaxed sitting posture, correct bodily posture including erect carriage and proper chest and shoulder development, is lost in a large number of cases. Owing to the fact that the school period is the growing period habits of posture and carriage tend to cast the structure into permanent form.

(3) Because of weakened nutritive processes and because of the suppression of the child's spontaneous desire for muscular activity, the mental development which results so largely from physical control is impaired.

(b) Neuro-muscular expression has become a prominent feature in many branches of education as manual and industrial training bear evidence. The recognition of the necessity for motor education has become universal. When the instinct for activity is suppressed the motor mechanism is weakened and the will enfeebled at the very time when it should be forming habits for life.

(c) Physical exercises are imperative to overcome the ill effects named above, to stimulate the nutritive functions, to correct bodily posture and to train the mental powers, especially the will.

(d) The forms of exercise should have a nutritive, postural and psychological effect.

(e) Out-of-door sports, plays and games, contribute vastly towards counteracting the above evils; they are the "divinely appointed" means to physical development. Recess should be restored to its original position.

(f) If possible a fully equipped gymnasium should be connected with every school. Light gymnastics, however, can never become a substitute for out-of-door plays and sports.

IV. *Instruction in Hygiene:*

Man, being subject to the same organic laws as the lower orders, should share with them in the wisdom devoted to physical development. His body is designed as the "temple of the living God." Perfect health may be maintained through observing God's health laws. These laws are of the utmost importance and are as divine as any others God has ordained for man's welfare. Sane missionaries now begin with teaching God's laws of health. Modern benevolence goes out in trying first to improve man physically. Your committee agrees.—

(1) That physiology, as commonly taught, concerns itself too exclusively with the effects of stimulants and narcotics often set forth in language that repels many of the most thoughtful children instead of convincing them.

(2) That the obvious hygenic laws that relate to clothing, proper bathing, eating, wholesome food and drink, and the necessary bodily functions should be emphasized.

(3) That the teacher, principal or superintendent, is to be judged, in part, by the hygenic, sanitary and consequent moral surroundings observed upon the school premises of which he is master.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

(1) The state should provide school districts, free of charge, with printed specifications for the construction, erection and equipment, of modern school houses, and then require that all new school houses come up to the standard thus set.

(2) If possible, the law should be so amended as to put a premium, in the form of a grant, upon the erection and maintenance of model rural and village school houses with effective sanitary, physical and hygenic provisions.

(3) School buildings which are conspicuously below a reasonable standard in regard to heating, ventilating, lighting and cleanliness should be inspected by competent experts; and if condemned by the same the state should require proper improvements to be made.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

By the term vocational education we mean that part of a system of education which takes cognizance of the calling upon which the learner is liable to enter in the future, and makes some provision

for it. The plan adopted in making this provision may have in view a narrow line of training in the technique of one specific calling to the exclusion of all other interests as is illustrated in case of the trade school or in the usual type of the private business college; or, on the other hand, it may provide a broad curriculum in which the training in the technique of the vocation in view forms but a part of the entire work of the pupil. For example, in the commercial high schools or technical high schools found in our larger cities, the training which distinctively prepares for a business life in the one case or for an industrial occupation in the other case, occupies no more than one-fourth to one-half of the student's time, the rest of the time being devoted to the acquisition of a broader basis of scholarship in related fields, to general preparation for intelligent citizenship and to realizing other aims of education. Thus far industrial schools of the secondary school grade are very uncommon in this country, and in this state the time does not seem to be ripe for their establishment as a regular part of our local school systems. Diversified industry is the rule in all North Dakota communities, and it is desirable that this diversification may continue to prevail. A difficult problem would therefore arise in adapting highly specialized schools to local conditions. But a more general type of vocational education has developed in a variety of forms. In this category belong the manual training, domestic arts and commercial and agricultural subjects of our high schools. The work in these same lines in the elementary schools is even less specialized, but all these branches give a general ground work for the vocations of the masses of our people, and they possess the further merit that they will function efficiently as disciplinary and cultural subjects for those pupils who may continue their education and eventually engage in callings other than at first contemplated.

Vocational education may be given in schools avowedly organized for the purpose of training for some specific calling as in the case of the trade school, business college, normal school, law school, medical college, engineering college, and theological seminary; or it may be given in the ordinary public schools by offering as a part of the program commercial subjects for business men, manual training for the manual industries, Latin for the learned professions, pedagogy for teachers, domestic science for housemakers, etc. The school may make full provision for completing the student's technical training so that when he leaves it he is prepared to enter upon the duties of his calling as is done in the vocational schools just mentioned, or it may merely lay a general foundation such as good courses in manual training give for the manual industries, as school courses in agriculture give for farming, or the traditional college, preparatory curriculum for subsequent courses for the learned professions.

The main lines of vocational education that we have in mind may be classified as, (1) professional, (2) commercial, (3) indus-

trial, including agricultural, and (4) the household arts or domestic education. Those divisions, of course, are not rigid or mutually exclusive.

Nearly all education above the elementary has a distinct vocational bent. "The subjects taught by the schools, ostensibly cultural, have often assumed vocational characteristics. Thus, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and music, may be made to so deliberately minister to self-support as to become truly vocational subjects; and similarly, drawing, manual training and science instruction may have content and method determined by practical considerations so as to be properly defined as vocational. Beyond these come those forms of teaching, as in the commercial and trades subjects in which every step is regulated by the necessities of the calling." (Dutton and Snedden, Administration of Public Education in the United States.) The curriculum of the old American academy was avowedly designed to lay a proper foundation for the learned professions for which the students were aiming; and, though the traditional curriculum of the academy has been modified somewhat in the modern high school and its vocational aim is now usually repudiated, it still remains true that every high school in North Dakota continues to lay the necessary foundation for the learned professions, while but few offer work that is equally fundamental for the business man, the mechanic, or the farmer.

No hard and fast distinction can be drawn between vocational and none-vocational subjects. The great difference between them is that certain studies have preparation for self-support as their immediate aim; while others merely serve as a suitable foundation to be built upon, generally in a long process extending over many years, and if this process is not completed then these courses usually fail to function efficiently for vocational purposes. So it is with the so-called cultural subjects. Not one of them is so exclusively "cultural" that it may not be used for earning a livelyhood; even the fine arts are not exempt from this. A study that is "cultural" for one pupil may be "vocational" for another.

The Committee are in favor of the present movement in this state for more ample provision in our school system for vocational education, but we do not restrict the term vocational education to a narrow line of training in the technique of one specific calling, as has been done by some writers. In fact we should strive to make the vocational training of our citizens as broad as their time will permit, while not neglecting the acquisition of thorough skill. We believe in such correlation of the vocational and the various other aims of education as is calculated to meet the demands of society, "That each adult, within the limits of his capacity, shall be physically well, shall be vocationally capable, shall have civic and moral insight and motive, and shall keep alive some cultural and esthetic interests." (Dutton and Snedden.)

We furthermore feel, that vocational education should be provided at various stages of advancement throughout our public school system; some provision for vocational education should be made for the boy who cannot attend school beyond the age of fourteen or sixteen. Again, provision of this kind should be made for the boy who is able to go through the high school but who cannot continue his education beyond that limit; and then vocational education should be given in schools of college rank, such as we now have in the case of the colleges of engineering, law and medicine that admit students who have just graduated from the high school; and lastly, there should be, and there is, a grade of vocational education provided for those who are able to complete a course in the college of liberal arts before entering upon a technical preparation for their calling. But it is obvious that but a very small fraction of our people can postpone their vocational preparation until they have finished the ordinary college curriculum. To refuse to let young people enter upon their vocational education until after they have finished a college course or even a high school course is to refuse such education altogether to the great masses of our citizens.

Speaking for the rural schools in particular now, we feel that they should offer preparation to their pupils for the calling of the farmer and of the farmer's wife; this implies that the boy should be taught the principles that govern soil management, and plant and animal growth, in order to help him solve the problem of how to secure the largest crops at the least cost and yet maintain the fertility of the soil. But while insisting on this, we would also provide for him a sufficient commercial education to handle the business phases of his occupation. We would also have him familiar with some of the problems of government and economics so as to understand the relation of agriculture to other industries and to such things as railroad rates, tariff and taxation. We would endeavor to imbue him with civic righteousness and an appreciation of the duties that are incumbent upon all intelligent citizens as patriotic members of organized society. We would also have him interested in the study of social problems, especially those that affect the farmer, his social life, his school facilities, church privileges, etc. We would also make provision for his spiritual life and cultivate an interest in and a taste for the beautiful in nature, art, and literature, and a sympathy with all that makes modern civilization worth while. And with it all we would endeavor to create in the school an abiding faith in agriculture, a better attitude toward the farmer's occupation, an interest in the betterment of rural life and an appreciation of the many advantages of residence in the open country.

We maintain that such a scheme of education, which is based upon the environment of the pupil, is calculated to be most effective from every point of view; and that in case a pupil thus trained should leave the farm subsequently, to take up the life of a business man or professional man, there would be nothing to regret; for his

education would be the best that could be devised for him while residing in the country, whether he remained there or subsequently moved to the city.

For the elementary schools of the city we feel that the details of the curriculum should vary somewhat from those for the rural schools. We are not referring now to our smaller towns which are virtually rural communities, but to the cities which are really urban in their nature. In such schools the environment is quite different from that of rural schools and the probability that the pupil will eventually follow the farmer's calling is very small. His interests also will therefore be different. Many of the people about him are engaged in building operations involving a variety of manual industries, and another great portion of the population are interested in business enterprises. For the vocational phases of the school work of these children, therefore, we would provide an introduction to manual industry, to business methods, and domestic arts, all merging into practical lines of manual training, commercial education, and domestic economy in the grammar grades and high school.

It will be observed that this outline for vocational training includes the girls and takes into account the fact that practically all of them will sometime in the future take up the calling of homemakers. We, therefore, provide training in domestic art and science. This, in the main, would be the same for the girls in the rural school as in the city school, though in the former a few things, like dairying, might receive more emphasis than in the latter.

The Committee believes that the "tools of learning,"—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, etc., are needed by all people in all vocations; and they must remain the chief concern, and take up the greater part of the time, in the elementary school, especially in the lower grades. But they need not monopolize the whole time. Many unessentials may be eliminated and ample room may thus be made for all the distinctively vocational work that it is feasible to do here. This must generally be limited, as implied above, to elementary agriculture, elementary manual training, and domestic arts. If anything more specialized is attempted it should be confined to the grammar grades and even there it can be offered only under the most favorable circumstances.

But even with the elementary work here mentioned the teacher should be able to keep before the child more prominently than at present, the fact that he must in school hope and endeavor to make some preparation for his future calling. We insist that the school and the home shall be brought closer together than they are at present, by occupying the child while at school for at least a portion of his time in studying the problems that the family life is concerned with.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. We recommend that more provision be made for vocational education than we find in our schools at present.

2. That this provision be made in the public schools, both elementary and secondary, and it should include agriculture, manual training and mechanical drawing, domestic science and domestic art, commercial training, pedagogy, and a practical treatment of natural science; and retain also a reasonable number of such subjects as are considered fundamental for the learned professions. It is not implied, of course, that all schools should introduce all these lines of work. Which subjects are selected by a given school will depend upon the dominant local interests and upon the teaching staff and equipment of the school.

3. That when a highly specialized type of training in specific trades is introduced it should be the outgrowth of well developed manual training courses, and such trade courses are not deemed feasible for our smaller towns at the present time. That for the present, a few trade schools connected with some of our state institutions, and a few agricultural schools connected with some of the state experiment stations would supply our needs, and serve to show the possibilities of this kind of schools.

4. That, in general, our schools should lay more stress upon the idea that the pupil is preparing himself for earning an honest living, and shall offer him every possible opportunity for determining what particular calling he is best adapted for, and for securing at least some general training for the same.

CULTURE AND DISCIPLINE.

(1) CULTURE.

If there is a chameleon in the English language it is the term culture which takes its lines and shades from the age, the people, the very individual who is found with the word on his lips. If it were merely a matter of curiosity that prompts us to discuss this subject we should surely stop to examine the character, of the age, the people, and the individuals who reveal themselves through the meaning which they give to this magic word, but it is more than our interest in the reflections of the past (which are so plainly visible in this mirror of men's ideas) that leads us to pursue this fleeting term. It is the interest which we feel in the present and the future, for not only has this many hued term the power to reveal to us the character of the users of the term but to a large measure man's concept of culture makes that character what it has been, what it is, and what it will be.

Whatever the concept of culture has been at any time there has always been connected with that concept the idea that this culture contained the best things to be desired in education and in life. It is this power of the idea of culture to make or limit the civilization of an age that prompts us to write this paper, reinforced, let us confess, by the belief that our present conception of culture is ex-

cluding some new and desirable acquisitions which would greatly contribute to social and individual progress.

One cannot note these peculiarities and consequent results of the idea of culture without wondering if there is not some rational basis on which a true concept of culture might be founded, a basis which would admit the new and desirable culture and prevent the false emphasis which leads to the esoteric, the degenerate, the fanatic, or worse yet to stagnation.

Before attempting to find this basis let us assume the definition which all users of the term assume, that culture connotes the highly desirable qualities of mind and body, and then if we can find the basis for determining the desirability we can come close to forming a rational working conception of the meaning of culture.

In seeking for the most primary basis of values in human qualities, powers, or acquired tendencies, I can think of no basis more fundamental than the basis of persistence. Surely no quality, power, or tendency which tended to destroy the individual or the social organism could be rationally considered as desirable culture. This is fundamental, and if the mind could foresee all the conditions under which the individual is to live and comprehend all the working out of cause and effect in the relationship of the individual to his physical, social, and spiritual environment, this test of persistence would be the only basis necessary on which to found a rational conception of the desirable in culture. This, of course, is not entirely possible, but so far as the mind can foresee these conditions and relations this test is fundamental.

But where the primary test is not available to us because of lack of knowledge, we are provided with a secondary test, which is not so accurate as the former would be but in many cases this secondary test is all that we have and it has the further advantage of including the conscious data, as we may call them, for estimating the values of qualities, powers, and activities of the organism. This secondary test is proximate because it is itself a derivative, to some extent, of the conditions and relationships of the past and hence a true guide only in so far as these conditions and relations are like those of the future. This secondary test is the sense of satisfaction.

Let no one say that these tests are materialistic, for the former takes into account the whole relationship of man to God's universe and the second includes quality as well as quantity, duty as well as pleasure, spiritual as well as material satisfaction. It is no part of the purpose of these discussions to harmonize philosophically these senses of satisfaction but to employ them as we find them, only taking care to apply them rationally and scientifically.

If these bases of the desirability of culture are accepted, we may say that within the limits of our term will be included all of those qualities, powers, and tendencies which best fit the individual and the social organism to persist and which will render the greatest

satisfaction to the individual. It will be noticed that we say best fit the individual to persist and render the greatest satisfaction; this is assuming that absolute culture is an abstraction which the finite mind can not attain but toward which it is always reaching and hence our working definition of culture includes the approximation of this perfect culture and our selection of the elements of culture recognizes this approximation.

It will be noted that under this definition of culture is included power as well as qualities. This is warranted by the modern tendencies to consider qualities themselves as manifestations of powers. Moreover we are not using the term culture in the limited sense of refinement but rather to include all of the desirable acquisitions of body and mind. To us a feeble person is no more cultured (though he may be more refined) than a person whose powers are unsymmetrical and badly directed. In other words we consider it the function of cultivation to develop, harmonize, control the powers of the organism to rational ends rather than to refine it to feebleness. To our way of thinking it is not at all necessary that the kingdom of heaven shall suffer violence nor that the violent shall be able to take it by force. The cultivation of desirable powers is to us in fact a large part of the acquisition of culture.

Before passing to another consideration of the general subject it is pertinent to point out that in the application of the standards above the test of universality is constantly applied by the sanest of minds and we might say that the extent to which any mind universalizes its satisfaction is a real test of the sanity of that mind. This test prevents satisfaction from being a temporary guide merely and from leading to eccentricity.

If the idea of culture has been generally arbitrary and often whimsical in its totality, it has been even more defective in emphasis laid upon the different phases and in the selection of the elements of these larger phases. While possibly there has seldom been a condition in which a man without ethical culture would be considered a cultured gentleman, there have been times when a very small amount of morality was required under this idea of a cultured man. There certainly have been times when cleanliness was not included under culture, when industry was positively excluded from the idea, when utility was considered vulgar. Moreover within these larger phases there has been and is still a considerable of confusion. If we attempt to specify what constitutes ethical culture, or industrial culture, or esthetic culture, or domestic culture, or religious culture, or civic culture, or even physical culture desirable for a cultured individual we shall at once be made conscious of the difficulty of the task; yet it is this very thing that must be done to make culture a definite aim in education and it is a little of this task that we propose to attempt guided by the principles already laid down and aware of the limitations both of human knowledge and of human reason.

First among the larger phases of culture we shall place ethical culture (including a large part of civic). This phase is warranted by the test of persistence and the test of satisfaction. We do not need to argue this point for it is generally admitted, but we do need to look at what constitutes ethical culture. An ethical culture which does not include the duty and responsibility of the individual to society would be clearly defective under the tests. An ethical culture which permits the individual to live as a parasite on the labor of others without adequate return is clearly perverted (and in practice our modern culture still permits slavery). First in general importance and first in need of reform we shall mention this phase of culture and suggest that the already known principles of right be applied to the several social conditions and relations.

Next to ethical culture we are inclined to place a phase of culture very close to ethical in many of its applications. This phase we shall call industrial culture. This phase has not come to its own; it has been under the shadow of a perversion of the moral culture which has permitted and still permits slavery, but with the growing repugnance of this immorality it is coming into its kingdom. Tested by the primary test of persistence industrial culture is indispensable. Tested by its ability to afford satisfaction it will rank high as soon as it is freed from the burden of the parasite and becomes a voluntary outlet for man's intelligent activity. Even now in America we see signs of the satisfaction which industry can afford.

Esethetic culture has been so long recognized as valuable culture that we do not need to argue its case, farther than to insist that this phase of culture be fairly and equally distributed to all members of society to the end that it may enrich the lives of all, and to point out the necessity of applying to esthetic satisfaction the test of universality to prevent its leading to perversion.

We shall not in this place say more about domestic culture, than to urge its necessity both under our tests and to the end that the American home which seems to be in a state of dissolution, especially in the cities, shall be preserved as the foundation of our society.

The value of physical culture is generally conceded and almost as generally ignored. We merely suggest that sanitation, health, physical power, physical utility, and physical grace and beauty are desirable culture and should be pursued with all the knowledge and means at our command.

For the last we have reserved religious culture not because it is last in importance but because from the nature of religious culture we find it so intimately connected with every other phase as to properly be treated in connection with each rather than by itself, and hence we prefer to treat it after each of the other phases has been mentioned. Religion is based upon reasonable belief and for this reason gives to each kind of culture the wider universality of this belief. The line between reasonable belief and unreasonabl belief we consider to be the line between religion and superstition and sup-

erstition we shall exclude from desirable culture. Our only suggestion with reference to religious culture is that this line of reasonable belief be kept up to the advanced position which it should hold with reference to knowledge, and that it should be sufficiently vital to result in action in the several fields of human activities and interests.

With this necessarily brief consideration of culture and its larger aspects we shall turn to the distribution of this culture to the members of society.

We are not enunciating any very new doctrine when we say that we believe that ethical, religious, and esthetic culture should be offered to all without reference to vocation or caste, or sex. That a large part of civic, domestic, industrial, and physical culture should also be common. We would be doing something radical and novel if we were to bring about conditions, economic, moral and civic which would permit us to offer this culture to all and permit them to accept it. Much has yet to be done in practical morals before this desirable distribution of culture is possible.

Under the distribution of industrial culture we wish to point out that there are some elements of culture which are necessary only to those who follow this vocation or that, such as the use of some machine, instrument, tool, method of industry, etc. This specific culture should be furnished with no tendency to degrade.

No discussion of culture, at least from an educational viewpoint, will be satisfactory without mention of the question of the transferability of culture. We have no space in this paper for a complete discussion of the psychological considerations involved in this dispute. No one, however, in theory, at least, believes in the total transferability of any phase of knowledge, power, or skill to every possible use. As far as the truth can be told briefly it is simply this. The various wholes of knowledge, power, skill which the mind is constantly reconstructing and bringing into use are composites made of many elements. These elements enter to different degrees into each of these wholes. It would be almost impossible to furnish the mind or body with any element that would not enter into some of these units of required culture. The extent to which these elements enter into the various complexes, and to which they are available for use will determine how general these elements are. In this sense there is the more general culture and the more specific, the specific being warranted rather by value of the service which it will render when needed than upon the generality of its use. Both terms are relative, but it is a fundamental law of mind that it will not long continue to do two things where one will do and for this reason wherever an element which has this general use can also take the place of one of more special use the mind will be sure to employ it. This fact can be taken into account with advantage in furnishing the individual with the elements of culture. Much duplication can thus be avoided and more time given to the unifying of these elements into those combinations in which they will be most often needed.

This will mean bringing the individual's culture to a degree of efficiency which will make it immediately practical.

We shall close this discussion with the observation that the elements of this culture are acquired before maturity and urge that all agencies of culture,—the home, the church, the school, and the state, make it possible for the youth not only to acquire the elements of desirable culture but that the youth be retained under these agencies of culture until the elements have been unified into a fair degree of efficiency. This duty which society owes in imparting culture to the youth is only second to the need of grasping the right idea of what culture is desirable. Both are requisite for social progress and individual perfection.

With this brief survey of culture we will turn to the means of culture or to discipline.

(2) DISCIPLINE.

I. General Statement:

1. It is the general purpose of discipline to develop the inherent tendencies of the individual.

2. Discipline includes:

a. The selection of the culture desired.

b. The determining of the emphasis to be laid upon each phase of this culture.

c. The selecting of the means (including material and method) for the development of these phases of culture.

3. The basis for determining the desirable culture and the emphasis to be laid upon each phase has been outlined under culture. The means will be determined by the principles of development or growth of the mind and body as well as by those conditions determining the desirability of culture.

II. Statement of Formal Discipline:

1. We have seen that there is no general culture in the sense that all of any kind of culture can be totally transferred to any particular use, but that comparatively there is some culture that has wider application than others because its elements enter more extensively into the knowledge, power, or skill needed by the individual. So far as discipline aims to give these more general elements of culture there is a general discipline. We have seen too that there are some elements of desirable culture that do not enter so extensively into the desirable activities of the individual. That discipline which furnishes this less general culture we may call specific, remembering that it is only relatively so.

2. The physiological and psychological foundations for the above assumptions are that all acts of body and mind are complexes composed of many elements and that while all of these elements are not available for any particular act, yet there is a broad range in the

combining of these elements. This being true, that is the best cultured mind which has the widest range of these elements and has them best unified for combined use when needed.

III. The Means:

A. In selecting the material for an elementary course of study these considerations appear important:

a. Preference should be given to those studies which will best furnish these general elementary data mentioned above.

b. When these elements will at the same time lead to knowledge, power or skill, which can be applied completely, identically, to the needs of the individual they are especially to be preferred.

c. While matured efficiency is not possible in the schools in the elementary grades this work should aim at this final efficiency.

d. No subject or exercise which has not this aim of furnishing definite culture should have a place in the schools on the general assumption that it furnishes mental discipline, for we have seen that discipline is a means to an exact end, the furnishing of desirable, definite culture.

B. In selecting the methods of discipline those methods should be chosen which will be in closest harmony with the conditions under which the individual will be required to apply his acquisitions of knowledge, power, and skill.

RESUME.

We believe that there is need of a broader conception of culture, one that will admit all those elements needed for the progress of society and that will give due emphasis to every acquisition which improves the individual and the social organism. We have offered as rational tests of such a conception of culture the ability of the quality, power, or acquired tendency:

1. To fit the individual and the social organism to persist, so far as the mind can foresee this ability.

2. The ability of the quality, power, or acquired tendency to render satisfaction to the individual, the latter test being guided by the universality of the satisfaction.

In considering the comparative value of the various general classes of culture we have insisted that they be subjected to the above tests and valued accordingly.

Concerning the distribution of this desirable culture we have asked that religious, ethical, and esthetic culture be offered to all members of society alike and that those phases of industrial culture which are common should receive a like common treatment, but that specific culture in this line be offered to those who may need it and

always without any tendency to degrade any phase of industrial culture to the use of any particular class. We have suggested that in perfectly organized society industrial culture should render as great satisfaction as esthetic, and that it has only been prevented from doing so by the institution of servitude which has distorted the natural tendencies of the organism to find satisfaction in all the necessary activities.

Concerning discipline we have recognized

1. The more general value of the elements which can enter into the widest range of application.

2. The superiority of those combinations of knowledge or skill or power which can be applied identically as they were acquired.

3. That no subject or exercise which does not have a definite aim in the securing of some phase of the desirable culture should have a place in a course of study.

4. That the methods should be in harmony with the conditions under which the culture is to be applied.

Finally we will say in closing that we believe that a broad rational basis for the concept of desirable culture will do much to make way for the advent of a social organization in which the individual may attain to a higher exuberance of mental and physical culture than that of the Greeks, a moral culture never before conceived of, a civic and industrial culture which will enable the social organism to become highly effective in producing and sustaining such individual qualities and powers, and a spiritual and religious culture which shall be a worthy superstructure to such a foundation and round man out toward the perfecting of his inherent possibilities to perform their widest and highest uses.

MORAL AND CIVIC EDUCATION.

The moral and civic phases of education must not be neglected, if the individual is to be socially efficient in every way. They, like the other essential phases, look toward the ultimate and universal ideal—the completely socialized individual—and each of them, like each of the others, makes its own peculiar contribution in that direction.

The ideal of moral education is the knowledge, practice, and love of justice between men in the daily associations of life. It is not enough merely to know what is morally right, such knowledge must be supplemented by consistent and appropriate action. And there must still be added the love of justice. To know clearly, to practice consistently, and to love devotedly the "square deal" among men is the ideal of moral education.

The individual whose moral nature is to be developed must have the chance to learn *what* is right, *to do* what is right, and *to love* both for their own sake. This opportunity is to be found in con-

temporary life, history, and literature. Moral situations within these fields, consisting largely of those in which truly great men and women are placed, are the material upon which the moral nature must feed to secure its proper development. History and literature successively widen the field within which such situations are found and thus enrich both the quantity and the quality of material far beyond what they could be, if dependence were placed upon contemporary life alone.

Everywhere material for moral education should be selected with great care so that the individual may be brought into contact with significant and typical events and great men and women highly worthy of his study and emulation. Text-books within the three fields named could greatly increase their usefulness as a means in moral education by bringing together more material of such a nature and by excluding much which they now contain of little or no moral value.

With individuals, of undeveloped and indetermined personality, direct ethical instruction and detailed analysis of moral situations, ideals and principles is of much less value than unanalyzed examples of noble conduct simply absorbed and imitated. This is true whether the material be taken from contemporary life, history, or literature. It is most strikingly true as regards the moral influence of the teacher which, unconscious as it may be upon the part of both her pupil and herself, may reach farther than any other—even all others.

The ideal of civic education is the knowledge and practice of duties to, and the feeling of patriotism for, municipality, state, and nation. In each case the practice presupposes the knowledge, and both of these—at least when they are most efficient—assume a thorough-going patriotism. Here as in the case of moral education the materials for study are to be found within the fields of contemporary life, history, and literature. All three present situations involving the inter-relation of government and individual. In general the moral and civic ideals are so closely related—presupposing each other as they do—that much the same things are to be said of them and that they may often be cultivated at the same time and by the use of the same materials.

In the handling of the materials of moral and civic education, large use should be made of cooperation. The individual educated outside of active relations to others can acquire no moral and civic qualities. The school must become more social and less individual in its method, if it is to gain ground in moral and civic education.

Further valuable suggestions dealing with the inter-relation of individual and society and the graded arrangement of subject-matter for social study in the elementary schools are given by Dr. Gillette in his article on "Social Study in the Elementary Schools" which this report includes.

RELIGION IN OUR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Education, as a preparation for complete living, and as including the whole man, should provide for the development of the religious nature.

Further, since historically and as a matter of fact, religion and morality are usually very closely associated, and since the history of civilization plainly proves that morality for its highest efficiency demands some kind of religious basis, the emphasis on the development of character requires that moral education be reenforced by religious motives.

But as the separation of church and school is a recognized and desirable feature of American social evolution, the formal or textbook teaching of religion in our schools is, in general, either impossible or unwise.

There is, however, a distinct field of religious training that belongs logically and practically to the public school. The concepts which the child forms in his study of nature and natural science are not complete without the general concept of God, his creation, and man's place and obligations in this creation. Nor are his ideas of humanity as gathered from his study of literature and from his school life complete without a knowledge of the ethical teachings of Christ.

We believe, therefore, that these general ideas of God and His creation, of man and his place in creation, these principles of Christian ethics, and reverence for these ideas and principles rightly belong to the field of elementary education, and should be taught by men and women whose attitude toward these fundamental ideas and principles is right. Further, throughout the course the school should seek to develop in the mind and heart of the child a belief in God as the Father and creator of us all, should inculcate a spiritual conception of life, a Christian spirit, and a religious attitude of mind, and seek to arouse an abiding conviction of the brotherhood of men as children of one common Father. In accomplishing these results very much must always be left to the wisdom and tact of the teacher. The most important thing must always be the atmosphere of genuine reverence for sacred interests, the moral uplift from the devotion to high ideals, and the influence and example of the Christian teacher. Not the formal teaching of religion, but religious teachers and teaching religiously is the true solution of the problem of religious education in our public schools.

Further than this the committee is not willing to recommend for the work of the school. We feel, however, that more formal and definite religious instruction is needed. But the primary responsibility for religious education must devolve upon the church and home. As a committee we most strongly urge an awakening on the part of these agencies to the imperative need of progress in the intelligent and effective discharge of this responsibility.

II. THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

INTRODUCTION.

The Course of Study for the common schools of North Dakota has done immense good to the schools of the state, more especially the rural schools. It meant much to substitute some degree of order for the confusion that must have existed before; it was of great value to pupils, moving from place to place as much as is the case in any new state, to have reasonably definite standards of graduation; the eighth grade graduations offered definite ideal to thousands of North Dakota boys and girls, and thus kept many of them in school a year or two longer than otherwise would have been the case. Thousands, too, of our teachers find in the Course of Study a constant guide in the daily planning of work, and in the orderly presentation of subject-matter. Your committee approaches these investigations with a lively appreciation of these and other values the Course has had and now has.

The Committee of Seven, however, has throughout its investigation had the feeling that in American educational systems generally courses of study for the elementary grades have not received the attention that is their due. Changing conditions have made it necessary to add new fields, new subjects, to the curriculum. Occasionally a legislature in its enthusiasm over some particularly good thing has prescribed so many minutes a day, etc., to that particular thing. The force of conservatism, though has kept the older subjects nearly unchanged in content, and the new is generally organized by its enthusiasts along its own lines, so that new and old stand in our curriculum, like the facts in the minds of Lowell's "Critic:"

> "Each a separate fact, undeniably true,
> But with him or each other they'd nothing to do."

Just now the particular solution urged for our educational troubles is to make education "fit for life" by adding some "vocational education" to the aggregation of facts already imposed on the children of America. That there is sound argument for greater emphasis on the future calling of the child, your Committee has been agreed from the beginning of its work. On the other hand and far more important, is the simplification of the Course of Study long asked for by teachers and by the general public, and formally endorsed by the North Dakota Educational Association in 1908. Few states, if any, have a better Course of Study than we, yet only a cursory examination of our course is needed to discover that a child is supposed to be carrying five distinct lines of work in the first three years, another is added in the fourth, another in the fifth, and in the seventh grade, a pupil carries eight lines of work, besides general lessons in writing, agriculture, drawing and what not; and that any school of six or seven grades, as is not at all uncommon, has thirty to thirty-five recitations to provide for,—all of which would seem to show ample justification for the resolution. The

fact that this congested condition is common to elementary programs over the northern states generally may soothe our feelings to some extent, but does not alter the fact that vigorous changes are demanded. So at the Committee's second meeting, it was unanimously agreed "that this Committee act in its recommendations on the view that a mere revision of the present elementary course is insufficient to meet our present needs, and hence our recommendations look toward a thorough reorganization of elementary education in North Dakota."

That this is the work of years instead of a few months, that it must come, when it does come not as the work of one Committee but as the work on many minds each working out its own phase of the problem; that it involves ultimately the rewriting of the text-books of several of the subjects, we recognize. Our resolution does not commit us to a completion of the task; it states that our recommendations "look toward" a reorganization of elementary education. We knew we could only make a beginning, but took our instructions to mean that we were not to suggest some temporary palliatives, but if we could not furnish exact prescriptions, we should at least do what we could to diagnose the disease, and suggest the general lines of treatment.

As has already been indicated, our investigations toward this reorganization are along two principal lines, first, and mainly, the simplification of the present course, and secondly, the introduction of some new matter, or treatment of old matter from a new viewpoint, to prepare the pupil for earning a living and for more intelligent citizenship. In simplifying the Course, it was first agreed that "we favor a more extended use of the principles of correlation and alternation of subjects to the end that the number of subjects required of pupils at a given time be reduced." As long, however, as the amount of material required for each of the subjects demands five days in the week for the several years it is pursued, any considerable amount of alternation is impossible. So the real problem becomes the reduction of the amount of material called for in several at least of the courses.

The essential parts of any subject are those parts that contribute clearly and definitely toward the aim or aims justifying the place given to that subject in the curriculum. In their recommendations of subject-matter for their respective subjects the various sub-committees have taken thoroughness rather than completeness as their aim—a mastery of these essentials rather than as attempt to cover all the details, even seemingly important ones, that the subject might include. Further, they have not felt impelled to add to these essentials any subject-matter solely or mainly on the ground of its supposed value for mental discipline; whatever has mental discipline as its sole or chief claim to its inclusion in the course has been rejected. The reasons for this appear in the report on "Formal Disci-

pline and General Culture;" suffice to say here, that, granting the importance of mental discipline as an aim in education, it is an aim whose realization is far less dependent on the material chosen, than on the way the material is presented by the teacher and studied by the pupil.

The application of these principles is well illustrated in the recommendations for *arithmetic*. Believing that the How of solving the problems of number in ordinary life will generally be evident when the need arises, and that the chief thing to get in school is readiness and accuracy in computation, the recommendations call for "more drill upon fundamentals," aiming at "greater efficiency in the simple processes." Believing that what time we devote to the How, should be to the How of doing things the pupil is most likely to have need for doing, and that with most of our children in North Dakota, these problems will be in large measure those connected with rural life—a phase but scantily treated in most texts in arithmetic—the committee recommends a supplementary text with this class of problems. All "puzzle problems" several topics like true discount and cube root and denominations little used, like furlong, quarter (of weight), etc., are rejected, because they have no practical value—do not contribute to the end in view in Arithmetic—and their room is needed for other and more valuable material in this and other subjects. This reduction in subject matter will, it is believed, gain the time needed for the extra drill on fundamentals, and still reduce the time needed for this subject to one or two lessons a week the first two years, and not to exceed four lessons a week for the remaining six years.

As to *reading*, most of the committee's recommendations refer rather to method of treatment than to the subject matter to be read. The Committee does, however, wish to condemn the practice, not authorized by the Course of Study but followed in some schools, of filling up the reading period with a lot of informational reading, geography, physiology, nature study, etc., and to insist upon the choice of the material for its inspiration, its interest to the pupil, its power of helping him to love the good in literature and the good in life. They recommend, too, easy material and a great deal of it. To this end, they would eliminate from elementary grade work such matter as Burke's Orations, Bunker Hill Oration, Ancient Mariner, complete plays of Shakespeare (short extracts like the orations of Brutus, Antony, and Portia are approved), and would advance many other selections to higher grades; e. g., Rhoecus, Grandfather's Chair, Tales of Shakespeare. As to method in reading, the Committee feels, not so much that the Course is at fault, as that the actual teaching is so often not in line with the Course. They recommend better literary preparation of teachers, to the end that they may read pleasingly and well; that the teacher do much more reading to the pupils than is common, of good things from literature, short poems and stories, extracts from long poems, fiction or history,

geography, or nature descriptions of literary merit. To do this well, the teacher must prepare herself, must read and assimilate the thought of the selection, perhaps practice it aloud, before presenting it to her school. There must too be greater emphasis on careful daily preparation of reading lessons by both teacher and pupils; to the end that pupils may study intelligently, more care is needed in assigning reading lessons (and language) than in any other lessons of the daily program. If "reading is a key to knowledge," let us train out pupils in this view by expecting them to know and tell to us the substance of what they have read. We will thus develop in the pupils' minds the feeling that reading a lesson is not naming over the words, but is really studying the lesson, and this treatment of all subjects alike, reading, language, geography, history, physiology, will make them help each other—will correlate them in one of the best ways. This does not mean, of course, value mainly from the beauty of the author's wording, or from their appeal to the emotions; it does mean that our pupils are to be trained into the habit of reading to learn, and that not until they can and do read in this spirit are they in a position to appreciate the beauty or to get the moral lesson or the inspiration.

The aim of *language* study is stated in the Course of Study to be "the mastery of literature" and the Course seems to be laid out and discussed with that aim in view. In our judgment this is a mistake. The proper aim for language in the grades is that other aim occasionally referred to but not worked out in the course—that of "teaching the child power of expression." In discussing the subject of reading above, we have indicated what we believe is the best means of training in language,—namely, to train a pupil in all subjects to find the meaning in what he reads and then to tell it to others. When he can tell it orally, then he is ready to write it, and the aim is to have him write it in increasingly better form. So our recommendations look to the reduction of the amount of formal language work, the dropping of much of the details of parts of speech, a lessening of the emphasis now placed on literature in the language course and the planning of a course that will show the teacher as definitely what to do to give the pupil real practice in the art of expression, as the present course shows her how to teach literature and grammar. And, too, the Committee believes that this plan, by increasing the pupils' ability to understand what he reads, will in the end do more to help the pupil to appreciate and enjoy good literature than is at present gained by trying to teach the subject under the head of language.

The argument for education at public expense is based in large measure on the necessity of preparing the young for the coming duties of citizenship. To this end, *history* and *civics* get their places in our school programs. Few would claim, however, that history and civics as presented in the average texts and courses of study are doing this work at all effectively. In the opinion of the Com-

mittee this ineffectiveness is due in large measure to unwise choice of material which in turn occurs because both author and teacher do not have the right aim in view.

We deny that history for the grades should attempt to be a compendium of the events that have attracted national attention or that civics should be solely or even mainly an outline of the constitution and code of state and nation. In these subjects the aim should be first and above all else to arouse an abiding interest in the life about us and a desire to know more about it. Children are interested, not in dead facts and institutions as such, but in human beings, what they have done or are doing and why. Hence, we believe in emphasizing the human element, the biographical side, in grade history. And, too, history can well be shortened. What lessons have the stories of thirteen colonies that the stories of three can not teach? Why must every administration be provided with its important events? Likewise, in civics, not what the law defines as the duties of each and every official, is of interest, but what does he actually do, and why does it need to be done–

And is the pupil's present and future relation to his governmental machinery the only thing prospective citizenship calls on him to investigate? Should he not learn something of the community life of which he is a part;—the mutual and cooperative nature of society, its ethical basis and its demands on each one, the world's system of production, the division of labor and the interdependence of the producing groups, and the service performed or contribution made by each individual or institution which helps to make our community life?

Geography is in the curriculum in answer to the questions of the child and the man about their natural environment. Particular phases of the study of environment we call respectively geography, nature study, and agriculture, and in more advanced work these may be quite distinct. In grade work, however, it is impossible to separate them without, on the one hand, destroying their interrelations and help for each other, and on the other hand complicating the program. So our recommendations join the three in one series of lessons running through the eight years, though calling for only two or three lessons a week for the first three or four years. The one further fact to note here is the increased emphasis this course gives, as we believe is needed in North Dakota, to nature study, home geography and the things that help understand agricultural problems.

Aside from agriculture, *Manual Training* and *Domestic Science* are most prominent among the newer subjects demanding place in the curriculum. The Committee is unanimous in recognizing the need of training for the hand as well as for the mind, and of training the future bread-maker as well as the future bread-winner. The detailed recommendations for a course in these two lines are given below, and it is the belief that the larger towns and a steadily growing number of smaller towns will find in such courses a strong factor

in the maintenance of a good school curriculum. In the ordinary rural school practical difficulties to be overcome in introducing these subjects are so great as to make at present generally impossible, in our judgment, to go farther in this line than agriculture for the boys and sewing for the girls.

The subject of *Physiology* is not discussed, but it is not to be inferred from this that the Committee ranks physiology as a subject of small importance. A "sound body" ranks on an equality with a "sound mind." The Course in Physiology as revised recently eliminates the excessive emphasis heretofore given to anatomy and places the emphasis on hygiene and sanitation; it aims to develop an interest in the larger problems of the health of the community, and through these teach lessons of personal hygiene as well as make clear one's responsibility for the health of his neighbors; it aims to clear one's responsibility for the health of his neighbors; it aims toward a more practical treatment of stimulants and narcotics,—all of which meets the committee's hearty approval, and our omission of a report on this subject is to be so understood.

Correlations and Alternations.—One of the striking elements of incompleteness in our report is the failure to work out a program of correlations and alternations of subjects. A second thought will convince one, however, that the arranging of these in detail is almost if not the final step in making a course of study; as such, it would be some distance in the future for us at this stage of our work. A few words may be offered here to show the general plan we have in view. In the first two grades for example, if reading receives ten periods a week, language three, and number work two; if three lessons a week are given to nature study in the fall and spring and to physiology in the winter, and one period daily for a variety of general lessons like the history stories, the teacher's reading to the pupils, etc. This would offer a wider range of work than is usually offered now and at no greater cost in time. Again, for the next three grades four periods a week would accommodate the nature study geography, and physiology in the same way, and history would require only two periods a week more. In the upper grades history should give place to civics for a term in each of at least two years, and when agriculture is offered as a separate subject in the eighth grade it would take the place of geography. The details will not probably work out exactly as suggested here, but this will indicate in a general way what the Committee had in mind.

COURSES OF STUDY IN ARITHMETIC.

GRADE I.

First six months: The work is oral and largely objective—no figures used except as an exercise in writing.

1. Knowledge of numbers from 1 to 10, obtained by means of objects.

2. Memorize these facts of addition:

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	3	4	5	6	7	4	5	6	5
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5

Include the corresponding facts of subtraction.

3. Idea and respective relation of foot and yard, pint and quart, cent, nickel and dime.

4. Idea of inch, square inch and cubic inch, and their use as units of measure, limited to 10.

5. Number relations expressed by 2's, 3's, 4's and 5's, and halves, thirds, fourths and fifths, limited to 10.

6. During these months avoid the use of such expressions as plus, minus, subtract, multiply by, divide by.

Rest of the year: The preceding work continued, but written problems may now be given and the common mathematical signs and expressions introduced.

7. Learn to count and write numbers to 100.

8. Roman numerals to XII, from the clock dial.

GRADE II.

About half of each lesson period should be given to oral exercises, the teacher stating the problem or reading it and the children answering instantly.

Problems placed on the blackboard for the pupil's seat work should be nearly all abstract, the concrete examples being given orally.

Scope of work:

1. Memorize these facts of addition:

6	7	8	9	6	7	8	9	7	8	9	8	9	9
5	4	3	2	6	5	4	3	6	5	4	6	5	6

Include the corresponding facts of subtraction.

2. Adding short columns of 2's, 3's, 4's, 5's and 6's.

3. Subtracting 2's, 3's, 4's, 5's and 6's from numbers below 60.

4. Multiplication tables to 6 x 10, including the corresponding facts of division.

5. Reading and writing numbers to 1,000.

6. Idea of halves, thirds, fourths, fifths and sixths of objects, and of numbers within the limits of 60.

7. Idea and respective relations of quart, peck and bushel; linear

inch, foot and yard; cent, nickel, dime and dollar; pint, quart, and gallon; $1, $2, $5 and $10 bills.

8. Review idea of square inch and cubic inch, and their use as units of measure.

9. Solution of problems involving one operation within the limits of 60.

GRADE III.

1. Memorize these facts of addition:

7	8	9	7	8	9	9	8	9	9	9
6	5	4	7	6	5	7	8	7	8	9

Include the corresponding facts of subtraction.

2. The course of work in addition completed that was begun in Grade II, Topic 2, now taking columns of 7's, 8's and 9's.

3. Subtracting 7's, 8's and 9's from numbers below 60.

4. Course in addition begun in 1st and 2d Grade is completed here.

Teach "carrying," in addition.

5. Subtraction, including "borrowing."

6. Multiplication and division tables through 10 x 10.

7. Multiplying by numbers of one figure.

8. Short division.

GRADE IV.

1. Multiplication and division tables through 12 x 12.

2. Multiplying by numbers of two figures or more.

3. Long division.

GRADE V.

An elementary but systematic treatment of common and decimal fractions—(many simple ideas of common fractions having been learned in the preceding grades.)

The commonest topics in denominate numbers, such as United States Money, linear measure, surface measure, cubic measure, liquid measure, dry measure, time measure, avoirdupois weight.

GRADE VI.

Treatment of common and decimal fractions extended. Mensuration: linear and surface measure, land measure; triangles, measuring lumber, rectangles and rectangular solids, wood. An elementary treatment of percentage and interest.

GRADE VII.

Common and decimal fractions: review of principles, and a final study of the more difficult cases of multiplication and division. Greatest common divisor, and least common multiple. Simple work

in percentage. Interest—general method. Mensuration: trepeziums, parallelograms, trapezoid, circles, prisms, cylinders.

GRADE VIII.

Thorough treatment of percentage, with commercial discount, commission and insurance, taxes, government revenues, a simple treatment.

Interest, with promissory notes, partial payments (limited to one or two payments). Compound interest (limited to a study of the principle and the solution of a small number of simple problems), bank discount, stocks and bonds (limited to a study of the principle and the solution of a few simple problems).

Simple proportion. Square root. Mensuration: pyramids, cones, spheres; similar surfaces, similar solids and their ratios. Longitude and time—standard time (a very brief treatment).

CHANGES.

Additions.—Problems in Agriculture: Hay in mows and stacks, fencing, silos, creameries, live and dressed weight of animals, water in plant growth, fertilizers. These would be given as part of the work throughout the school.

Omissions.—Omit cube root and the metric system which are now prescribed in the Course of Study, and omit the directions for holding pupils "responsible for what the text book contains" (e. g., Fourth Year, First Month). The text book might contain troy and apothecary's weight, true discount, present worth, foreign exchange and various other subjects which are not included in this course.

The course of study is too verbose. It should be simplified, and thus greatly improved, by striking out many meaningless, needless, or inappropriate sentences and paragraphs. For example, in the first year, the remarks upon the philosophy of number. They do not belong in a course of study. Then such directions as, "Show that $2 + 3$ has the same value as $3 + 2$, etc." Assume that the teacher and pupil have common sense and eliminate mere verbiage.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. Reduce the amount of subject matter, (a) by eliminating certain subjects as cube root and the metric system, and (b) giving less extensive treatment to certain other topics.

2. Diminish the time now devoted to arithmetic,—giving but a small allotment to it in the first and second school years, and omitting it from the daily program once a week throughout the rest of the elementary course.

3. More drill in the fundamentals,—better training in efficiency in simple processes.

4. A supplement to the usual text, containing problems in agriculture for the different grades.

5. Simplify the course and save much time,—by omitting many of the tiresome and trivial details as to matter, and all suggestions as to method that are of questionable value.

READING IN OUR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The committee believe that the following points need special emphasis:

1. The primary aim in reading is the recognition of ideas by means of written symbols. The ultimate result should be the forming of a cultivated taste for the best literature, a genuine love of reading, and the power to read easily, rapidly, and accurately.

2. That these results may be obtained the pupil should be required to read widely, and the emphasis should be upon the necessity of a large amount of supplementary reading, not too difficult.

3. The emphasis should be shifted from oral reading which is little used, to silent or personal reading. This statement should not be understood, however, as implying that the pupil should be allowed to neglect the proper interpretation in vocal terms, but is intended as a recognition of the proper direction of needed emphasis only. There should also be frequent tests to ensure a proper understanding of the work covered, remembering always that a good reader is one who rapidly discovers the thought of the printed page, holds it clearly in mind, and, through expression, can readily convey this thought to others.

That the pupil may become a good reader, there should be much practice in rapid reading, and he should often be required to reproduce the real meaning of the author in language and form of expression which shall adequately represent not only the thought, but the real spirit and feeling of the writer. This may be facilitated by the use of the expressional paraphrase, that is, through asking the pupil to formulate or amplify the meaning of accent, emphasis and inflection in suitable words. Another aid to this end is to require the pupil to present a description or narration as actually seen or heard, as present and realized. In all this we are to remember that there is no impression without expression.

4. Reading work should be definitely and intimately correlated with the general work of the school, especially with language, history, nature study, geography, and other studies which put the pupil in touch with his natural and social environment. The subject matter should utilize, so far as possible, the present, familiar experience of the pupil, and the new should grow naturally out of what is already known. In all this, however, it should never be forgotten that the emphasis is on the subject matter *as pure literature*, not as the source of information.

5. It should always be kept in mind that *action* is the child's natural mode of expression, and hence the story, the epic, and the

drama should be freely used. Also, the child should be encouraged in the graphic reproduction, and even dramatic representation of the portion read through expressive activity.

6. Greater emphasis is needed upon the thorough and careful preparation and better literary training on the part of teachers of reading, as well as upon a more adequate preparation of the daily lesson, both by teacher and pupil. The teacher should be able to vitalize the subject matter through presenting it dramatically, or in story form, as well as through ability to read pleasingly and well. The one unpardonable sin in the teaching of reading is the mechanizing of the process. The individuality of the pupil should be given full scope always, and all aids, devices, and rules should be subordinated to the goal as indicated above.

LANGUAGE.

Education however defined must take into account its two phases of impression and expression. There has been a tendency to give the emphasis to impression, in many cases, to the almost complete neglect of expression. Thoughtful educators have long condemned this tendency and we often hear, e. g., "There is no impression without expression," or again, "One does not know what he cannot tell." Whether or not these last statements are to be accepted depends entirely on the meaning given them, but in any case the fact is recognized that the expression of a truth newly come into consciousness, the reproducing or retelling of it, clarifies and deepens the impression. And it does not stop with merely making the impression stronger or deeper. We are told that isolated facts do not stay in the mind, that it has no way of holding them, that it is only as a new experience or idea is associated with other experiences and ideas that the mind secures power to recall it and to use it. It is here that the greatest value of expression arises. When, through something seen or heard or read, a new fact comes into consciousness, the search for the proper words or other means to express the new calls into play words or acts that have been used to express similar or related ideas and this associates the new with those, the similar or related ideas. The new idea no longer stands alone; it is now joined to the ideas and experience that preceded it. So expression not only deepens the impression made by the new; it aids the mind in grasping the new, in apperceiving it, and making it a live part of its fund of knowledge and experience. With all these attributes and possibilities, expression may well demand large share of the educational program.

It will always be true that language is the most important means of expression; as the work of many schools is conducted today, language is practically the only means of expression. Yet in how many schools five to seven periods a day are devoted to gaining impressions and only one to a study of means of expression! In

how many schools that one period is devoted to memorizing rules, definitions, memory gems, etc.—to gaining more impressions—without giving the pupil any considerable opportunity for his own ways of expression!

If education aimed only at knowledge, it would still remain true as we have shown above that expression is an important and almost necessary means at gaining a permanent hold or even a present understanding of the impressions. But education aims beyond knowledge, at knowledge plus power, and expression is more important still in the development of power. So it has been agreed among teachers that, if a child is to gain a permanent and a usable knowledge of any subject, it must be by continually calling out the expression of the knowledge as it is being gained. To this end, the good history class, e. g., is not merely a class in memorizing dates, cut and dried facts and reproducing these word for word from the book; it is a class in the expression and discussion of historical ideas, a class in talking about historical personages and events. Similarly, in geography, reading, physiology, civics—in any subject, if we wish our pupils to think and think connectedly, to gain ability to seize essentials and to organize their ideas of the subject-matter, we must train them to talk and talk connectedly, to seek out main points for discussion, and to tell their story so that the details fall into relation to these main points.

By common consent, however, teachers have given to training in language one period a day in addition to whatever training in expression they give in other classes. In the other classes, the emphasis is on the accuracy, completeness, and relation of the facts; by common consent it is agreed that there is needed a period daily, or almost daily, in which the form of presenting the facts receives special study. There are incomplete sentences, ambiguous modifiers, errors of speech, to be brought into proper form; in the geography or physiology class, these changes are made through a suggestion or question by the teacher; in the language period, practice and drill are provided to change the knowledge of correct forms into habits of speech. There are forms of written composition, margins, paragraphing, punctuation, forms of correspondence to be mastered; this work belongs essentially to the language period. It is believed that the memorizing and frequent repetition of good literature, selections from the masters of English, will widen the pupil's vocabulary and furnish models for his own expression, so memory gems often constitute a part of the language work.

It is on this last point that the Committee must take issue with the present Course of Study and the present practice in a large proportion of North Dakota schools. The Course of Study sets forth two aims for Language, first, the mastery of literature, and second, developing the pupil's power of expression. A careful study of the Course, however, shows that, while there is an occasional statement of the importance of the art of expression, almost nothing is defi-

nitely provided to develop this art, while almost the whole Course is laid out in the aim of mastering literature. In the judgment of the Committee this is fundamentally wrong; the mastery of literature as such is not the purpose of grade work in language, whatever literature appears in the language period gains its place as we have shown above merely through the assistance it can give to the pupil's power of expression. Some of the Committee would like to say that memory gems, important as they are, can not give an equivalent in language training for the time they cost, and hence they do not belong in the language period, but are properly a part of the work in reading. Whether or not this last be true, the Committee is united in maintaining that the purpose of Language is to develop the pupil's power to tell in good form and write in good form whatever he knows and wishes to tell or write.

Another characteristic frequently appearing in the Course, and questioned by the Committee, is the bringing in of things extraneous to the other work of the school for the pupil to reproduce, to talk or write about. In ordinary life, we do not study up something, learn a story, etc., for the sake of writing or talking about it; why should we in school? In life, we talk or write, because we know or have learned something we think will be of interest or value to others, and we talk or write to convey this knowledge to them. Then in school let us do the same; let us tell or write in the language period an interesting story from the reading lesson one day, let us retell and better organize the facts of the history or physiology lesson another day, and occasionally let us drill on correct forms of oral and written speech. Further, should we, as the Course suggests, make this correlation with only one study for several years, then another for a year, and so on. The Committee believes that any body of interesting knowledge, gained by the class in any other lesson of the day may well come over to the language period to be retold with the emphasis now on the wording, the form, and the organization, and that this kind of work should form a very large part of the language work of every grade.

To many persons, however, language is merely something to fill in the place of grammar in those grades where grammar is too difficult, as fast as possible to prepare the pupil for grammar, as rapidly as possible to introduce the simpler parts of grammar, and as soon as possible to give entire place to grammar. The writers of our Course of Study repudiate this view, and the Committee thinks rightly so. The Course says: "Language is not a diluted form of grammar;" and even in the last two grades you should be training speakers and writers, and incidentally grammarians." It is to be feared though that in a very large proportion of North Dakota schools, the aim of seventh and eighth grade instruction is toward grammar and often entirely to the exclusion of language training. This Committee would recommend as a remedy for this that a course in oral and written composition be laid out for these grades drawing

topics from the other work of the grades, and showing teachers how to handle these lessons to develop the pupil's power of expression. We would recommend too the elimination of nearly all the subdivisions of parts of speech, the formal conjugation and functions of the tenses beyond the simple time relations of the six indicative mode tenses, nearly all of parsing—in fact, we should regard the ability of any grammatical data to aid in developing the power of expression as the test of its introduction into grade work.

To state these points in brief, they would run about as follows:

Expression is as important as impression and the expression of an idea is a strong aid to the impression made by it.

Language is the chief means of expression available in the school-room.

The study of language should aim first, last, and all the time toward securing for the pupil this power of expression.

In the recitation of every subject, much time and effort should be devoted to assisting the pupil to tell his facts fully and to improve his power to organize them; the language period should carry still farther this practice, in telling, choosing main points, and organizing, with the emphasis on form rather than facts.

Language should be correlated not with one subject a year and next year with another, but each day with the subject that offers the most suitable material.

The work of the two upper grades should be at least half devoted to language training, and the grammar taught should be not the details of parsing, but the broad principles of sentence structure, that will aid the pupil in understanding and using the language.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS.

The reproduction work should be mainly narration or descriptive exposition; the beautiful (especially what depends on form for its beauty) the ethical, the abstract, should generally be left in the form in which the author presented it.

The memory gem should receive attention, not alone in the language period, but also in reading.

Everything, every subject, should contribute all it can to the pupils' language training. Even Arithmetic, in completeness and accuracy of statement; in explanation of problems, in form of written work, can help much.

Distinguish between the things for which the pupils are responsible (indicated in the Course of Study) and the supplementary matter suggested to the teacher.

The dictation lesson, read by the teacher and to be written by the pupils aims to improve their spelling and punctuation, and to call for their best penmanship. It may have other aims; it may be offered in any grade, and ought to be used as early as second grade and in all grades thereafter; it may be taken from a language text or spelling text, but it may often be better taken from the reading lesson, or from any of the other lessons.

Everywhere, get the pupil to talk, to talk connectedly, to talk logically, and to write in the best form as to margins, paragraphing, and punctuation, selection and arrangement of thought, that he is capable of at that stage of his progress.

First Year.

On the teacher's part, conversations planned on things in the school room or yard, the home life, on things seen on the way to school or in nature study excursions, and on the games played in and out of the school-room. Stories should be read or told to the pupils. Good literature should be read to them.

On the pupils' part, reproductions of the facts gained through the above; later, of the facts gained through his reading lessons.

The memory gem work should include not only poetry, rhymes, and the like, but dramatization as well.

In number work, insist on full statement, except in drills.

Written Work—

Learning to copy words, sentences, etc., from script copy, with care to reproduce capitals and periods.

Putting into script the printed sentences of their reader with care as to punctuation.

Making up and writing sentences in answer to the questions.

Writing name and P. O. address.

Second Year.

Work of preceding year continued with increasing independence of teacher's aid.

Add to the preceding the straightening up of margins, and indenting of paragraphs as he copies, the copying of the forms of letters from the blackboard. In the stories reproduced, the advance is in the length of the story and in the fullness of detail. The reproduction may be assisted by outlines, topical or question, and in this outline, paragraphing should be provided for. In the oral hygiene, nature study, etc., pupils should be held to reproduction in full of what was worked out the day before. In number work, there should be full statement and much oral analysis.

Pupils now write letters to the teacher, to their parent, etc., but helped by headings, outlines, etc., on the board.

Third Year.

In oral reproductions, teachers should now insist on ability to reproduce details practically completely.

Conversations continued, and they now throw an increasing responsibility on the pupil for thinking and talking.

Dictation lessons begin to receive emphasis.

Drills in correct use of pronouns and possibly verbs may begin here.

Social letters receive some time (teacher to see that pupil has something to write).

Fourth Year.

Pupils now ought to organize the reproductions pretty well as they tell them—they ought not to need often to go back to pick up essential points. In writing, there should be continued emphasis on paragraphing, and order of sentences. The *form* as to margins and indentations should be mastered by this time.

The physiology class now begin to use a text and each recitation should be a language lesson as well as a physiology, i. e., each physiology recitation should be an exercise for the pupil in talking, in thinking on his feet, in organizing the details of what he says. If a set of facts are first given in fragmentary shape, part by one, some more by another, etc., let one pupil finally re-recite them, putting them into a connected recitation.

Informal social notes, receipting of bills, ordering of goods by letter, addressing of envelopes should receive notice.

Drills in correct use of pronouns and irregular verbs given much attention in this and the fifth grade.

Fifth Year.

By the end of this year, the irregular verbs most commonly misused should be pretty well covered.

The geography recitation should be conducted as is suggested for physiology above; the same holds true of other subjects as they are introduced later.

Compositions, oral and written, continue. The written summaries should from now on be of help to the other subjects, notably history, geography, physiology, and should be used there often, sometimes as an extended composition, sometimes in a paragraph, sometimes in an outline.

Pupil should now be writing social letters, informal invitations, etc., making out bills, receipting them and writing out receipts in good form.

Sentences should be classified as to use, and the pupil is learning to use such words as sentence, subject, predicate, noun, without, however, having a formal definition for them.

Sixth Year.

In composition from now on, the advance will be not so much in form as in organization of thought, in ability to seize the essentials and arrange them properly on the one hand, or on the other to expand by putting under any general head the details that belong to it. The biography in history and the summary or imaginary journey in geography will furnish much of this year's material, though here as always any good material is to be used, whatever lesson it may be from.

Some paraphrasing may be done, keeping to the author's wording mainly but changing certain indicated words.

Social correspondence should now include formal notes of invitation, acceptance, regrets, etc. Business letters, answers to advertisements for things "Lost," should receive several lessons.

Pupil should now receive some practice in condensing phrases to words; clauses to phrases, sentences to clauses. Some work in choice of connectives should be carried on from here through the eighth grade.

In grammar the pupil should now know the various parts of speech in ordinary constructions, but his use of the names is merely as names.

Seventh Year.

Composition now to include all the kinds that have been given in other year's work and to add the following:

Reproduction may now call for more independence of the textbook and may bring in side topics. In geography or history, e. g., pupils may be called on to report orally or in writing reference work from other texts. In literature, they may be asked to report on the geographical or historical setting of the selection, or in the selection they may trace the career of a particular personage.

Pupil should be able to write the checks, drafts, notes, etc., called for in arithmetic.

In this and the next grade pupils should be called on frequently to outline a topic from history or geography or the reading lesson; and to talk to the class from his outline.

Grammar.—The analysis of the simple sentence,—subject, predicate, complements and modifiers. In this work the names of the parts of speech are used as *names*, without much discussion of fine distinctions.

Eighth Year.

Composition work adds—

Exposition of movements and events in history with causes, results, etc.

Character sketches from reading and history, from outlines given by teacher.

Close study of appropriate wording for the various forms of correspondence as social notes, letters of application, recommendation, introduction, acceptance, and business paper.

Grammar—

Analysis of compound and complex sentences and a somewhat fuller study of the parts of speech, but both to enter far on their subdivisions.

SOCIAL STUDY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

(1) HISTORY.

Social studies should aim primarily at these three things:—(1) sound character through intimate contact with the best men and

women of our own and other times, (2) sympathetic understanding of the chief phases of the present social order (especially the industrial) as seen in the light of past conditions, and (3) such an interest in public affairs as will later express itself in patriotic citizenship. The first is to be sought chiefly through carefully selected biographical stories, the second through cause and effect studies of historic events and movements in industry, politics, religion, etc., and the third through the two kinds of material just named and the imitation in school of elections, trials, councils, legislatures, congresses, etc. The richness of American history with respect to all three kinds of material should not be forgotten.

The subject should be so handled as to be essentially a thought subject. Great freedom should be permitted and as little attention as possible should be given to purely formal things. Reference reading should be much limited and carefully directed. The value of such reading for young students is easily over-estimated. Different views of the same thing from different authors, amounting usually with children to a sea of haziness and obscurity, are not to be compared in value to one clear view obtained from a single sympathetic author or teacher.

No text should be used until the children are able to handle it with ease and thus save the history from degenerating into mere reading. Through the oral story skillfully handled and untrammeled by text-books, rich and bounteous subject-matter can be easily taught in the lower grades which, because of the inability of children to read, could not be taught at all by the use of books.

FIRST THREE GRADES.

The fairy stories and myths suggested for these grades are intended merely to illustrate how thorough them, fanciful and imaginative in a greater or lesser degree as they are, the pupil following the order of his own development from the imaginative stage to the rational, should be permitted to approach authentic history. They should, of course, be classified as literature rather than history.

First Grade: Oral Stories.—The Ugly Duckling, Little Red Riding Hood, The Little Match Girl, Cinderella, Alice in Wonderland, The Pine Tree, The Wind and the Sun, The Four Musicians, The Three Bears, The Fox and the Grapes, etc.

Second Grade: Oral Stories.—The Golden Touch, The Gorgon's Head, The Dragon's Teeth, The Golden Fleece, The Minotaur, The Miraculous Pitcher, The Pygmies, The Snow Queen, and simple interesting incidents from the lives of great Americans.

Third Grade: Oral Stories.—The Story of the Illiad, the Adventures of Ulysses, The Tales of King Arthur, and simple, interesting incidents from the lives of great men and women—mainly American.

FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADES.

Through such stories as are suggested children may acquire an elementary knowledge in biographical form of American history by the end of the fourth year and of world history by the end of the fifth.

Fourth Grade: Oral stories from American history.—Columbus, De Soto, John Smith, Joliet and Marquette, Wolfe, Washington, Jones, Arnold, Hale, Boone, Lewis and Clark, Crockett, Carson, Lincoln, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Dewey, Fulton, Whitney, Morse, etc. North Dakota stories too.

Fifth Grade: Oral stories from Old World history.—Confucius, Nebuchadnezzar, Jason, Theseus, Hercules, Olympic Games, Croesus, Marathon, Alexander, Romulus, Hannibal, Caesar, Nero, Attila, Mohammed, Charlemagne, Vasco da Gama, William the Silent, Gustavus Adolphus, Peter the Great, Michael Angelo, Leonardo Da Vinci, the French Revolution, Napoleon, Kossuth, etc.

SIXTH, SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES.

With the ability to read easily things that they can understand once acquired, children should then study history from a text. A brief elementary text in simple language and attractive style and dealing with the whole period of American history should be the basis of the work in the sixth grade. During this year the text will help to put into systematic form all that has been taught through stories in the lower grades besides yielding much additional information not necessarily of a biographical nature. In the remaining grades a somewhat more advanced text should be used. It should go more into detail than the first one and the work should be made as intensive and complete as possible. A good deal of the time in these grades—especially the eighth—should be spent in reviewing the development of important movements.

(2) OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES. CIVICS.

1. Need of the study. The recent developments in our country have abundantly shown that much of the abuse which has arisen in our political and industrial affairs has taken place because of the one-sided and exaggerated individualism which has been fostered in our educational and political system. Our psychology has been individualistic and our moral precepts and teaching have been in the direction of viewing the individual as a separate agent, alone accountable for his success and without obligation to the community which has really produced him. The cure for the bad conditions and the establishment of a better order of things must, in large part, proceed out of a better knowledge on the part of individuals of their place and function in society and of their duty to it. This knowledge cannot be given in a year by way of mere precepts bearing on duty in the abstract but must arise from a long innoculation through con-

crete teaching about the social relations of the individual and institutions as they are found in action in the community about the youth. As in the case of nature study, which begins in early years of the school and gives simple lessons about objects in nature and which becomes more and more complex in the objects considered or study of the objects and processes of nature until at the end of the elementary schools it is found capable of being differentiated into the several natural sciences, so there should be a range of social studies which begin with the simple things, the persons or functionaries of the community, in the early years of the school and takes in larger and larger areas of social facts and processes until at the top or end of the elementary schools the differentiation into the various social sciences may proceed. This is both a preparation for the higher work which will follow if the individual goes on in his educational career, and is a preparation for life in case the pupil is forced to drop off along the way.

2. Relation to and differentiation from the studies of that nature now in the school. It is not conceived that this would displace history and civics which we now have. It would rather be supplemental and foundational for both. History is the study of the past currents of life. It unfolds to the mind's eye the great dramas which have been enacted in the past ages of human activities. Social study considers what is taking place in society now in a functional way. It is a cross-section of the present, viewing individuals and institutions as organs and factors which have a definite and specific service to perform in their interdependent articulations and organic operations with the larger social mechanism. It also looks to the future and seeks to show the individual and the institution how they may better operate for their own good and that of the larger whole. It emphasizes the all around interdependence of men and institutions as based on divisions of labor and keeps in the foreground the ideal society, the ideal condition of community life, the ideal relationship of the man in the service of humanity. Because it does this it is a needed foundation for the unraveling and the understanding of the story told in history. It is a value study and gives the child standards of value to measure the worth of the historical events as they are met. It enables history to assume larger significance than it otherwise could.

In like manner it is not civics, though civics may be articulated with it as a phase of social study. For illustration, botany is nature study but the reverse is not true because the whole is greater than its part. Nature study, proper, opens up all sections of concrete nature to view. It is the basis of all the sciences, both physical, biological, and anthropological. The same is true of social study. It gets at all parts and phases of community life, not merely the political or governmental. There are five or six fundamental phases of social life, or we may call them interests, which are expressed in human institutions or organizations, namely, the means or instru-

ments which men operate through to satisfy these various wants. Some of these important segments of society are political, economic, religious, esthetic, cultural, and sociability or "social." Civics covers that small section included in the political. It gives but a fragmentary view of man in his social relations. Social study would therefore supplement this valuable study.

It would also be a foundation for civics. Civics takes up the somewhat specialized study of the functions in society of a section of society, as was just said. Social study would first establish the idea of a larger entity called society, its interdependent, organic, and cooperative nature; secondly, give the idea of the function or service of every person or organization as a part of society; third, give ideals of what society and community life should strive to be, what the individual should be and what his attitude should be to make possible the realization of progress or betterment. This would serve as a most valuable background for the more specialized study of civics.

(3) TENTETIVE SUGGESTIONS LOOKING TOWARD AN OUTLINE OF SOCIAL STUDY.

First Four Years.

First Year. Genesis of the social consciousness by taking advantage of play, play instincts, and play organizations. May be carried on through several years, especially as the basis of securing ideas and decisions relative to social matters. In first year to be used especially to give conception of inhibition and control of own activities, power and technique of cooperation, idea of service in and for the group, securing initiative and leadership.

Second Year. Study of the home group—father, mother, older and younger children, hired help—to get idea of group action directed toward common welfare, division of labor, of service, interdependence, cooperation, common good, mutual rights, obligations; also group law, judicial decisions of parents, administration of group will-germs of all larger political activities; likewise the culture and protective functions in their beginnings.

Third and fourth years. Carry out the beginnings laid previously into the neighborhood. Ask such questions as these about such functionaries as the following:

a. Question: Who has seen a———? Where does he work? What does he do? How does he do it? What does he do it with? Whom does he do it for? What does he do it for? What does he produce for himself? What are his needs? How are they satisfied? What do we receive from him? What do we give him? How are we helped by his work? How could we get along without him? How would it affect us?

b. Functionaries: Farmer, teacher, preacher, mail-carrier, blacksmith, carpenter, thresher, farm hand, house girl, justice of peace, marshall, school officers, road supervisors, etc.

Grammar Grades.

The work in the grammar grades differs from that of previous years chiefly in the matter of complexity of matter and situation, as well as in the spirit and vitalizing power which is to be carried into the operation. The ideal is to make society appear to be a live, working organism, a dynamic thing, rather than a collection of dissected members. The child is to secure his qualifications for citizenship through getting the connections intelligently in mind, in making decisions wisely as to what should obtain, in throwing his sympathies in the right direction, and seeing the part he may play and the duties and privileges which may be his.

Fifth Grade.

1. Intensive study of the school. a. Principal. Consider selection of teachers and books; arranging course of study; programming studies; noting progress of pupils and advancing them in their school work; care of school property; of individual and school rights; health and safety of pupils; proper janitor service, etc.; service to the social group.

b. The teacher. Consider: what she is for; how she does her work; the preparation she has made; who benefits by what she does; how she is helped—hindered—in her work; whose loss when she is hindered; how hindrance may be avoided; what she has a right to expect; her service to the school group; to the social group.

c. The janitor. Consider: What he does; why he does it; why it is important; What the result if neglected; How it may affect us; How he is helped—hindered—in his work; What should be our attitude toward him; Why; What are his needs; How are they satisfied; What he exchanges his labor for; We satisfy his needs for what; What he gains; what we gain; What effect his absence would have on our work.

d. The pupil. Consider: What he is here for; Basis of the right; who makes the privilege possible; what he gives in return; the benefit to those who pay for it; Who furnishes him the conditions for growth; what his attitude should be toward property; why; toward school books; toward his own books; why; how he is helped to make wise use of books and materials; how is the teacher helped —hindered—in doing this; how the pupil is effected when the teacher is busied with non-essentials; what he has a right to expect from teachers; what teachers have a right to expect from him; what factors make a school; what conditions determine growth.

2. A study of pioneer conditions in North Dakota to see how needs of food, clothing, fuel, government, religious services, education, labor, sociability, etc., were met; and how society got organized.

Sixth Grade.

1. Study of a primitive group, as of a Sioux tribe, to get an idea of the simpler forms of our fundamental institutions. Tribal

government, civil and military chiefs, medicine men and religious ideas and rites, hunting and agriculture, division of labor between men and women, education of the boys, keeping tribal records, sign language, implement making, mythology.

2. Civics of district and township.

Seventh Grade.

1. A study of the special problems of the rural community: Diversification of crops in relation to the soil, and in view of growing population and coming smaller farms; Grain rasinig for world markets; Home and school sanitation; Neighborhood cooperation for cultural and sociability purposes; Making farm life more attractive to the children; cooperative agriculture; benefits of farmers' organizations.

2. Civics of county and state.

Eighth Grade.

1. Rural problems—continued. The school and farm life; How markets are made and controlled; cooperation with the government; the labor problem on N. Dak. farms; dependence of farming on railroads and its bearing on railway legislation and cooperative action. How to use agricultural and market reports; schools and churches as social centers.

2. Some industrial history of the U. S.; especially history of agriculture and farmers' organizations in the past century.

3. Civics in nation. Emphasis on what government should be in a democracy, here as previously.

GEOGRAPHY, NATURE STUDY AND AGRICULTURE.

The vastness of the natural science of today and the many distinct sciences growing out of the study of the forces of nature make elementary education in the natural sciences or rather in the elements of these sciences both important and difficult. The difficulty is accentuated by the brief terms in the country schools and by the limited time which over half of the children of all schools spend in attendance upon the schools.

The problem which confronts the educator is how to give the most valuable elements of this constantly increasing natural science in the limited time and with the limited means at his command.

This problem is made more difficult by the increasing demand for more civic, religious, physical, industrial and other kinds of culture.

The solution of this problem appears to be the wise selection of those fundamental elements of science which will serve to give the pupil command of the best range of scientific facts and principles which he will need.

In accordance with this idea we have arranged an outline of

topics which we believe will give the pupil this command of the more elementary and fundamental facts and principles of the natural forces about him. These topics for the first three years are quite general, including the basal facts of geography, agriculture, forestry, and civics. Beginning with the fourth year the science of geography begins to be worked out as a science, and this science of geography is completed in the seventh year. From the fourth to the seventh year, however, many of the facts employed as types in completing the science of geography have been chosen because of their value also as elements of a still narrower and more strictly defined science such as agriculture and civics. In the eighth year both civics and agriculture are studied and the elements which were acquired under the study of geography can be gathered together here and systematized into an exact science, of course, of an elementary nature and scope.

It is hoped that the outlines themselves may be more suggestive than any discussion. We beg also to remind the reader that such an outline can not claim perfection and at its best can only be a fair working approximation which may be perfected by use and wise study of the future needs and conditions of the pupils.

Aims.

A. General.—Nature is one of the sources from which the child gets a rich apperceiving mass which he will use in forming necessary ideas in practical life.

B. Special.—Some of the necessary special ideas which the child will need later are ideas of

1. Color, form, special properties of things.
2. Relations, such as adaptation, use, habits, cause and effect, etc.
3. Beauty.
4. Right and wrong.

Material.

A. The Earth—

1. Soil, and constituents.
2. Water, and its work.
3. Atmosphere, its action and work.
4. Plant life, its conditions and uses.
5. Animal life, its conditions and uses.
6. Some of the phenomena and forces of nature.
7. Some of the mathematical measurements of the earth, its movements and forces.

B. Man—

1. History.
2. Habits.
3. Industry.

4. Government.
5. Education.
6. Religion.
7. Home life and interests.

Methods.

The general method to be employed is the selection of a practical and pedagogical type of the fact or principle to be taught and the development of this type in such a way as will lead most directly to the knowledge, power or skill aimed at in the teaching of the subject.

Outline.

First Year. Animal Life—

1. Cat, dog, horse, cow, fish. Compare with other animals.
2. Robin, meadow-lark, woodpecker. Compare with other birds.
3. Butterfly, ant, bee. Compare with other insects.

Plant Life—

1. Pansy, Easter lily, pasque flower.
2. Thistle, dandelion.

Materials—

1. Wool, cotton, silk, coal, wood.

Natural Phenomena—

1. Wind, water, fire, heat, light.

Second Year. Animal Life—

1. Use any topics in this class in first year and also the sheep and pig. Develop the idea of food animals.
2. Gopher, fox, wolf, squirrel. Compare with other wild animals.
3. Butterflies, beetles, spiders, house fly, and compare.

Plant Life—

1. Goldenrod, sweet pea, clover, daisy, sunflower.
2. Thistle, dandelion, mustard, other weeds.
3. Seeds—bean, pea, squash, wheat, and conditions required for sprouting.
4. Box elder, elm, maple.

Materials—

1. Coal, iron, copper, gold, silver, glass, soil, wood.

Natural Phenomena—

1. Wind, water, heat, light, evaporation.
2. Observation of weather.

Third Year. Animal Life—

1. Toad, frog, fish, blackbird, crow, oriole.
2. Butterflies, beetles, ants, grasshoppers.
3. Kinds of cattle and their uses.

Plant Life—

1. Roots, stems, leaves, parts of flower, and uses of these.
2. Seeds—wheat, corn, oats, dandelion, thistle, cottonwood, beggar's lice.
3. How seeds are scattered.

Materials—

1. Coal, charcoal, graphite, clay, slate, rock, soil.

2. Leather, cloth, kinds of wood, hemp, silk, paper, hay, straw.

Natural Phenomena—

1. Wind, air, water, heat, light, evaporation, dew, frost, mist, clouds, rain.

2. Observation of the weather.

Fourth Year. A. Local Geography—

1. The school room, shape, size, draw to scale and locate seats.

2. School grounds, shape, size, draw to scale.

3. The city or town, draw principal streets or roads and locate places of interest.

4. Locate on the city or town map the interesting places in the vicinity, such as rivers, lakes, etc.

5. Locate railroads, roads of community.

B. The County.

1. Discuss and locate interesting places.

2. Make a map.

3. Locate roads and railroads, forests, lakes, etc.

4. Learn the nature of the soil and what crops are raised.

C. Physical Geography—

1. Soil, brooks, valleys, hills, mountains, rivers, lakes, oceans, continents.

Separate the soil by shaking in bottle with water. Observe clay, gravel, silt, and humus. Learn how each was formed.

2. Air, winds, weather-vane, directions.

3. Temperature, the thermometer.

D. Mathematical Geography—

1. The directions, shape of earth.

2. Apparent movements of sun, zones.

E. Animal Life—

1. Butterflies, beetles, other insects.

2. Some birds, birds that especially help the farmer, game birds, plumage birds.

3. Kinds of cattle and use of each, kinds of horses and uses, kinds of pigs and uses.

F. Plant Life—

1. Wheat, corn, oats, grass,—conditions under which they grow best, properties of soil each requires, cultivation, etc.

2. Pollination of flowers, how pollen is carried, use of color, nectar, scent, etc.

3. Distribution of seeds.

4. Weeds, how to get rid of each.

5. Trees, elm, willow, oak, ash, poplar, forests, location of forests of the country, uses, conditions under which they can be cultivated. Learn what conditions are required for the best growth of each kind of tree.

C. Materials—

1. Carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen.

2. Rocks and the formation of soil.

3. Coal, iron, gold, silver, copper, tin, aluminum, salt, petroleum, natural gas.

H. The Earth as a Whole—

Shape, size, movements, oceans, continents, countries, races, peoples of the world.

Fifth Year. A. North Dakota—

1. Rivers—Special study of the Red and Missouri as types. The chief tributaries of these two rivers in North Dakota.

2. Surface.—Teacher can find valuable help in Prof. Willard's Story of the Prairie. Also in government maps, charts, etc.

3. Soil.—Review fourth year outline and enlarge upon, constituents, moisture and air in soil, fertilizing, and cultivation with reference to retaining fertility, mositure, air. Learn what constituents each crop takes out, and the best way to restore it.

4. Climate, and causes determining our temperature and precipitation, winds, etc.

5. Forests.—Forests of the state, their nature, uses, values, how to protect and increase them.

6. The People—

a. Brief history of settlement and growth.

b. Industry.

1. Study as types the raising of wheat, and other small grains, corn, and stock raising.

2. Milling and elevators.

3. Lignite mining.

4. Transportation.

c. Schools.

d. Government, briefly.

B. North America—

1. Mountains and rivers.

2. Size, shape, map.

3. Climate, and causes determining.

C. The United States—

1. Brief history of settlement and growth.

2. Boundaries and map.

3. Take the most important groups of states and study.

a. Location.

b. Rivers and surface.

c. Industries, working out the cause determining and limiting.

D. Physical—

1. The formation of the soil of the United States.

2. The work of glacial drift.

3. Action of rivers and ocean currents.

E. Mathematical—

1. Seasons and zones.

2. The movements of the earth.

F. The World as a Whole—

1. Review size, shape, movements, oceans, continents, and races of men.

2. Countries of the world. Something of customs, industries, government, schools, and religions.

Sixth Year. A. North America—

1. Continent formation, upheaval, vulcanism, glacial action, erosion, and transportation.

2. Surface, rivers, mountains, etc.

3. Plants and animals.

4. People as to race, nationality, habits of industry.

5. Latitude and longitude.

B. United States—

I. As a Whole.

1. Physical features.

2. Climate.

3. Plants and animals, emphasizing the forests and their uses and the way to use and preserve them.

4. The people as to nationality and previous habits of industry.

II. By groups of states.

1. Physical features.

2. Resources.

3. Industries, choosing the types through which you may best get at the conditions and life of the people.

Make a specialty of the various forms of agriculture.

Under types of industry in the group to which North Dakota belongs treat agriculture under these topics:

(1) Soil, physical composition, chemical composition, what each crop takes out, how to restore this, best methods of cultivating in order to retain moisture and air in soil.

(2) Enemies of each crop and how to get rid of them. The teacher will find aid in Goff and Mayne's Ele. Agriculture, Shepard and McDowell's, etc.

4. Government.

5. Education.

6. Habits.

7. Religion.

C. Other Countries of North America.—Treat in the same way as United States, but more briefly and compare constantly with the United States.

D. Physical—

1. Teach at the right time in connection with topics above.

a. Continent formation.

b. Winds and climate.

c. Ocean currents.

E. Mathematical—

1. The seasons.

2. The earth as a planet.
3. Movements of the earth.

Seventh Grade—

1. South American.
2. Europe.
3. Asia.
4. Africa.
5. Australia.
6. Important Island Possessions.

Treat all the above in the same manner as is outlined for a study of North America, but not so intensively and always comparing with North America and the United States, and where suitable, with the state of North Dakota.

MANUAL TRAINING, DOMESTIC SCIENCE, DOMESTIC ART, AGRICULTURE.

In planning a course of instruction in Manual Training, Domestic Science and Art and Agriculture for the public schools the following principles are basic:

(1) Industry conditions life. For this reason, if no other, it is fundamental in the education of the young.

(2) Industry conditions society, its arts and institutions. It is the sub-structure that makes society possible. For this reason it is fundamental in the education of the young.

(3) Man's first duty to society is to be self-supporting; therefore the first office of education is to enable the pupil to support himself.

(4) The child should be given an opportunity to observe and participate in the industrial processes that form the sub-structure of our social life. Where this is not done the *quality of life* must suffer.

(5) Individual industrial experience is as necessary a condition for the normal development of the child as racial industrial experience has been for the progress of social life.

(6) The home cannot furnish this industrial experience; the school must do it.

(7) Since the school course is already overburdened industry must become the means through which other subjects are acquired. Through industry the child and the symbols of education (book learning) are to be brought into vital relationship. Industry is thus the "articulating center" of school life.

(8) No school system making any claim to completeness can consistently ignore the claims of industry as an integral part of the curriculum.

(9) The manual and domestic arts and agriculture, being primal community necessities, are the means through which the school must relate itself to active community life.

I. TYPES OF SCHOOLS.

The public school system of North Dakota, as at present organized and administered, includes the following types:

(1) The one-room rural district school.
(2) The consolidated rural school.
(3) The village school.
(4) The city school.

II. SUGGESTIVE COURSES.

(1) *One Room Rural School.*

Where rural school buildings are of the type prevalent in North Dakota, and where the teaching force is untrained and migratory, little in the form of industrial training can be accomplished. With inadequate facilities and untrained teachers failure is practically certain. The fact that instruction in the elements of Agriculture in rural schools has so often resulted in failure has led numerous teachers and school boards to abandon the field without an effort. Such failures have been due to untrained teachers. What has been true of Agriculture will hold true in equal measure of Manual Training and Domestic Science and Art. Where the teacher is properly trained and enthusiastic and conditions favorable a limited amount of industrial work may be confidently undertaken.

(A) *Elementary Agriculture:* Such a course should include the study of:

(1) *The Soil:* Modes of cultivation; fertilization; drainage; effects of crop rotation; adaptation of different soils to various products; methods of restoring worn-out soils, etc., etc.

(2) *Plant Life:* Varieties of cultivated plants; selection and care of seed; climate; modes of growth; propagation; tillage; harvesting, etc.

(3) *Animal Life:* Types of domestic animals; breeds and breeding; best varieties for certain purposes; feeding; judging; care; preparation for market; diseases; their detection, prevention and cure; animal pests, etc.

(4) *Economics of Agriculture:* Methods of administering the affairs of the farm; accounting; the relation of farming to local and general industries, etc.

(B) *Manual Training:*

The use of wood, iron, leather and paint, in making and mending.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*

Kind and quality of fabrics; adaptation; instruction and practice in plain hand sewing and dressmaking. Food values; selection and preservation of foods; methods in plain, fancy and invalid cooking; serving equipment and care of kitchen, dining room, etc.; the house

site; house furnishings and their care; house sanitation; laundry work; marketing; household accounts, etc.

Model Rural School Buildings.

Where the facilities are adequate and the teacher properly trained, two of the above courses are entirely possible for the rural schools. Facilities for carrying on the work are imperative. Additional land, to serve as a garden and demonstration laboratory, is a necessity. An additional room for a workshop is required. This may be built as an addition to the existing school-house at small cost. See *Cornell Rural School House*, pub. by Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

(2) *Consolidated Rural School.*

In the consolidated rural school having four or more teachers, one of whom is prepared to teach manual training and agriculture and another domestic science and art, the field of industrial education may be greatly extended and far better results obtained than in the one-room rural school. This is possible because of a better grade of teaching ability, a stronger school spirit and proper facilities for carrying forward the work. Here the school plant should include a special room for manual training and domestic science and art and sufficient land to afford practical instruction in farm management, fertilization of soil, rotation of crops, growth of vegetables, small fruit, fruit trees, etc. Where such conditions prevail, and where the principal is provided with a home adjacent to the school plant, instruction may be provided under almost ideal conditions.

In the well-developed consolidated school, equipped as above, the industrial instruction may well take the following form:

Grades I to IV—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*

Neighborhood bird, plant and animal life.
Window and home gardens.
Life history of a few attractive flowers and trees.
Weather records.

(B) *Manual Training:*

(1) *Materials:* Raffia, grasses, straw, paper, corn-husks, yarn, cardboard, etc.

(2) *Processes:* Clay modeling, weaving, braiding, sewing and making.

(3) *Projects:* A graduated series bearing an intimate relation to the child's interests, his home and school life; such articles as he can and wants to use.

Grade V—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*

Birds; their economic value.
Insects and animals helpful to gardens.

Insects and animals harmful to gardens.
House insects.
Weeds in relation to garden.
Dissemination of seeds.
Experimental work as to the effects of heat, light, moisture, soil and air upon the germination of seeds and the growth of plants.

(B) *Manual Training:*
(1) *Materials:* Cardboard, basswood, etc.
(2) *Projects:* See under "Grades I to IV" above.
(3) The *Working Drawing*, showing the different steps in the construction of the object, should be marked out before the pupil is permitted to begin the construction.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
(1) *Materials:* Raffia, rattan, canvas, cloth, etc.
(2) *Projects:* Weaving, braiding, sewing and darning and these processes applied.

Grade VI—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*
Work of the previous year continued.
Insects in relation to agriculture.

(B) *Manual Training:*
(1) *Materials:* Wood.
(2) *Projects:* Elementary woodwork.
(3) *Drawing.*

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
(1) Elementary sewing.
(2) Elementary cooking.

Grade VII—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*
Elementary text and practical work.

(B) *Manual Training:*
(1) Elementary woodworking.
(2) Elementary metal-working.
(3) Drawing.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
(1) Elementary sewing.
(2) Elementary cooking.

Grade VIII—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*
Text and practical work.

(B) *Manual Training:*
(1) Elementary woodworking.
(2) Elementary metal-working.
(3) Drawing.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
(1) Sewing.
(2) Cooking.

Grade IX—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*
Agricultural Botany—half year.

(B) *Manual Training:*
Carpentry.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
Sewing.
Cooking.

Grade X—

(A) *Agriculture and Nature Study:*
Stock judging, seeds, etc.; half year.

(B) *Manual Training:*
Forging.

(C) *Domestic Science and Art:*
Sewing.
Cooking.

(3) *Village School.*

The course of study in the village schools follows the traditional lines found in the city schools. Its courses should be so modified as to provide for instruction in the elements of agriculture, manual training and domestic science and art. The industrial courses may well follow the general lines laid down for consolidated rural schools, being modified and amended to meet local conditions. The success of such courses will depend upon trained teachers being employed.

(4) *City School Systems.*

By city school systems is meant those that are so large that at least one person is chosen to recommend teachers, to organize, aid and direct their work and to supervise the instruction.

(1) The course in nature study should begin in the primary grades and extend upward through the eight grades merging into elementary agriculture in the grammar grade and high school.

(2) The course in manual training should begin in the primary grades and should extend through all the grades in a series of carefully graded lessons. In general terms this course should comprehend the following lines of instruction:

(1) Grades I to VIII inclusive:

Clay modeling.
Paper and cardboard construction.
Weaving.
Drawing.
Sewing.
Cooking.
Bent Iron Work.
Knife Work.
Sheet Metal Work.
Bench Work in Wood.

(2) Grades IX to XII inclusive:

(a) For Boys:

Joinery.
Wood Turning and Pattern Making.
Molding.
Forging.
Machine Shop Practice.
Mechanical Drawing.

(b) For Girls:

Sewing.
Cooking.
Dressmaking.
Marketing.
Serving Meals.
Home Sanitation and Economics.

III. TEACHERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS.

As the teacher is the most important factor in a school no discussion of the readjustment of education can leave out of account the necessary adjustment of the teaching staff upon which the former must be conditioned. Herewith are presented some very brief considerations pertaining to this part of the problem.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Every state educational institution in North Dakota is either wholly or partly engaged in the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. Private schools are, also, so occupied. And yet with all this effort and with many teachers coming from other states we are still in need of more and better trained teachers for both graded and ungraded schools. As long as the demand for such teachers is greater than even all of these sources can meet, it hardly seems wise to deprive any institution, having even meager facilities for the work, of the privilege of training them. The training of teachers for its elementary schools is probably the greatest and the most important work that any state can do and no state, especially North Dakota with her demand so much greater than her supply, should be too quick to restrict the effort of any institution in this direction.

But it is nevertheless true that as the educational system of a state develops there ought to be a rational and economic division of the task of training teachers for the public schools, in order that different institutions may not unwisely duplicate and rival each other and that the training of no class of teachers may be slighted. When we come in North Dakota to such a division, the training of teachers for the elementary schools will be restricted to the state normal

schools (and to county normal schools, if they appear here as they have in some other states) and the state educational institutions doing work of a collegiate grade will be held to the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools.

The state normal schools should be equipped as soon as possible to take the same conspicuous part in training elementary school teachers in manual training, domestic science, and agriculture that they have always taken in training such teachers in the traditional elementary subjects. It is imperative that the normal schools be so equipped. The solution of the problem of improving the conditions of country and village life is more properly to be expected of the normal schools than any other institutions because of the peculiar position that they occupy with respect to all elementary schools.

An arrangement at least temporary, should be made by which elementary pedagogy, together with observation and practice-teaching in the lower grades, would be offered as electives in our high schools. The arrangement should permit the issuance to high school graduates who do this work of second-grade certificates entitling them to teach in rural schools for a limited time. This would tend to increase rather than decrease attendance at the normal schools and it would certainly increase both the number and the quality of rural school teachers. The second-grade certificate good for only a limited time should be the highest form of license given under this arrangement. Students desiring licenses of a higher grade should be expected to extend their preparation in more advanced institutions —in normal schools, if they are to remain elementary teachers; in colleges, if they are to become secondary teachers. If county normal schools are ever established they should be organized under the direction and supervision of the state normal schools.

The state normal schools as now organized are much more useful to the graded than to the ungraded elementary schools. These institutions ought to include as a part of their training departments a model rural school in connection with which students preparing to teach in rural schools might receive more helpful training than the normal schools now give.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS ALREADY IN SERVICE.

The agencies that may be utilized for the improvement and professional advancement of teachers already in the service include State Institutions of Higher Learning, High Schools, Summer Schools, Institutes, Supervision, Teachers' Meetings, and Reading Circles.

State Institutions of Higher Learning: The State University, the Agricultural College, the Normal Schools, and the State Normal and Industrial School should make provision for instruction in all public school subjects including nature study, agriculture, manual

training, and domestic science and art, so that, while on leave or during vacations, teachers may find in these institutions opportunities for improvement.

High Schools: These schools should broaden their curriculum so as to include a fair proportion of the industrial subjects and a limited amount of elementary pedagogical work. This would be a good thing not only for high school students preparing to teach but for some teachers already in service who might drop teaching for a short time occasionally to advance themselves professionally in the high schools.

Summer Schools: The six weeks summer terms at the various state institutions should be continued and the courses in nature study, agriculture, and mechanic and domestic arts should be given more emphasis. A few others might be opened in the more remote parts of the state at points that are convenient of access and have ample room, equipment, and other facilities.

Institutes: They are useful but could be greatly improved if the instruction in them were everywhere of superior quality. The state department should be given means with which to employ expert talent to conduct institutes throughout the state. Institutes are inspirational in character and too limited in point of time to admit of much training.

Supervision: The value of efficient supervision as an agency for the improvement of teachers is not yet realized in our state at large. The supervisor should be the teachers' teacher. To fulfill this requirement two things are necessary: (1) He must have expert qualifications; and (2) it must be physically possible for him to visit schools at reasonable intervals, i. e., their number must not exceed fifty for one supervisor. Money for the improvement of teachers already in the service could not be spent to better advantage than by providing more effective supervision.

Teachers' Meetings: These could be greatly improved by giving the places on programs to persons who have something to say. In towns more use should be made of the grade meeting. In the country less attention should be given to central county meetings, and more to local meetings held at different times and in different places.

Reading Circles: These should be encouraged. More reading, selected only for its pedagogical value should be required. At least one book of each year's series should be chosen with reference to its help in the newer educational fields.

Recommendation: In all preparation of teachers, wherever and by whatever agencies it may be carried on, due account should be taken of the urgent modern demand for industrial education. The teachers' certificate law should be so adjusted to the needs of the times as to give proper recognition to nature study, agriculture, manual training and domestic science, and thus encourage teachers to qualify themselves in these lines. But at present very few are thus

prepared, and any law making mandatory the teaching of these subjects in the public schools at the present time would result in failure and serve to retard industrial education. Constructive effort should be directed towards supplying such agencies as will popularize these subjects, and will, at the same time, promote instruction therein in the rural schools. To this end your committee recommends the enactment of a law establishing not less than three agricultural or industrial high schools such as are found in Michigan, Wisconsin, or Minnesota.

SUPERVISION.

To investigate and report the number of hours city superintendents have to teach in high schools of the various classes, how much time they get for supervision, how various ones use this time to the advantage of their respective schools; how many visits rural schools each receive from the county superintendent, what ratio of increase results from the use of one or more field deputies, what are the principal ways in which a supervisor can be of help to rural schools, —would have been an interesting task and would, we believe, furnish us some helpful summaries, at the same time that it would give each of us many valuable hints from the experience of our fellow workers. Lack of time forbade our entering on this field but we feel we ought not to close this report without calling attention to the importance of this part of our system, and to some of its problems and needs.

Boards of education hire a good high school teacher at $600 to $700 a year; they hire a superintendent of schools at $1,200 to $1,600 a year and then in the smaller towns frequently give him so much teaching to do that they practically make a high school teacher out of him—force a $1,200 to $1,600 man to do mostly $700 work. And the evil is worse in its influence than in its necessary effect. With four-fifths of the superintendent's time necessarily spent on his high school, and nearly all his immediate and definite tasks there, the tendency is for him to overlook and forget the more general and less immediate duties of supervision of the grades. Teachers often complain of the infrequency of their superintendent's visits; that he seldom or never offers them any real help in their teaching; that he has seemingly little interest in the grades of his school. We know that in State Associations the city superintendents as a rule devote practically all their time to the problems of the high school, while the elementary section which represents eight grades and 85% of their pupils and which should be the strongest section of the association, is largely left to shift for itself. That this is not so much the fault of the individuals as of the conditions with which they are surrounded, this committee is convinced; the city superintendents of North Dakota are a body of men of whom their fellow-workers and the state at large are and ought to be proud. But where all one's time is taken in high school teaching and preparing lessons for

teaching, supervision is impossible; and where a superintendent, himself trained best for the higher work, is surrounded most of the time by high school work, the tendency is almost unavoidable for his thought and interest to be there to a too great exclusion of the problems of his grades. Consequently, to the end that Superintendents be more free to devote time to their duties of supervision—the work they are really hired and paid to do—we recommend to boards of education a considerable reduction of the number of recitations the superintendents are now generally called upon to teach.

It needs little investigation to show that in rural schools, the conditions as to supervision are truly deplorable. The committee has not available any statistics for the past three years, but in the year 1904-1905, the county superintendents made 4,347 visits divided among 3,487 schools,—one a year to each school, with 860 visits for emergency visits and rare second or third visits. In 1905-1906, 3,804 schools received 4,546 visits—one each and 742 for emergency visits, etc. It goes without saying that, valuable as that one visit generally is, one visit a year does not afford much real supervision. When we find that in some cases superintendents having 50 to 100 schools made in two years less than one visit to each school each year, we cannot but feel that an explanation is due from those superintendents. When we find on the other hand that several superintendents made from 150 to 275 visits yearly and still could get to each school an average 1¼ visits each year, we must condemn the system that renders ineffective so much work. It was the impossibility for any one to supervise effectively 150 to 220 schools scattered over 600 to 2,000 square miles, that led the last legislature to give a field deputy to the superintendent of 150 or more schools. This committee wishes to commend this action as a step in the right direction. When we think that in city supervision, it is common for a board of education to employ their superintendents' whole time for supervision, as soon as their school passes to 25 or 30 departments, and how much more time is needed for the same number of rural schools, we feel that further steps should be taken in this direction than have been taken, —that as recommended by Supt. Stockwell, there should be a supervising officer for every not to exceed fifty schools.